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THE BEGINNING
OF
SOUTH AFRICAN HISTORY.

THE BEGINNING
OF
SOUTH AFRICAN HISTORY

BY

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COLONIAL HISTORIOGRAPHER

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PREFACE.

IN January 1896 I completed a small volume which was published in London and Capetown with the title of *The Portuguese in South Africa*, and which is now out of print. The preface to that volume was as follows:—

“A very few years ago, when I prepared my large History, the expression ‘South Africa’ meant Africa south of the Limpopo. Mainly through the ability of one man—the Right Honourable Cecil John Rhodes—that expression to-day means Africa south of the Zambesi. The event which I took as an initial point—the arrival of Van Riebeeck in Table Valley in April 1652—has thus come to be incorrect for that purpose, the true starting-point now being the arrival of D’Anaya in Sofala in September 1505. I have therefore written this volume, in order to rectify the beginning of my work.

“As Bantu tribes that were not encountered by the Dutch, and that differed in several respects from those south of the Limpopo, came into contact with the Portuguese, it was necessary to enlarge and recast the chapters in my other volumes descriptive of the South African natives. I need not give my authorities for what I have now written concerning these people, for I think I can say with truth that no one else has ever made such a study of this subject as I have.

“The Portuguese in South Africa are not entitled to the

same amount of space in a history as the Dutch, for they did nothing to colonise the country. I think that in this little volume I have given them their just proportion. In another respect also I have treated them differently, for I expended many years of time in research among Dutch archives, and I have obtained the greater part of my information upon the Portuguese by the comparatively trifling labour of reading and comparing their printed histories. I should not have been justified, however, in issuing this volume if I had not been able to consult the important documents which the Right Honourable C. J. Rhodes caused to be copied at Lisbon for his own use."

The government of the Cape Colony took a different view of the relative interest of the Portuguese occupation, and considered it advisable that deeper research should be made into the particulars of their intercourse with the native tribes south of the Zambesi in the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries. I therefore came to Europe in October 1896, and the greater portion of my time since that date has been devoted to collecting Portuguese manuscripts and early printed books relating to South-Eastern Africa, translating them into English, and publishing the original texts and the translations. Some Dutch and English manuscripts have also been included. Each volume contains over five hundred pages, and the ninth is now in course of preparation. The series, termed *Records of South-Eastern Africa*, prepared and printed at the cost of the Cape government, can be seen in the principal public libraries of Europe and the British colonies throughout the world.

The volume in the reader's hands is an abstract of the documents and printed matter thus collected, with a couple of additional chapters giving a brief narrative of events during the nineteenth century and a chapter upon the earliest inhabitants of the country. It contains about three

times as much matter as *The Portuguese in South Africa*, and must therefore be regarded as a new book. As it stands, it forms Volume I of my *History of South Africa*. The second edition of Volumes II and III was published in London in September 1897 under the title *History of South Africa under the Administration of the Dutch East India Company, 1652 to 1795*. Volume IV (second edition in course of preparation) contains the History of the Cape Colony from 1795 to 1834; Volume V (second edition published in 1893) the History of the Cape Colony from 1834 to 1848, the History of Natal to 1846, and the History of the Emigrant Farmers to 1854; and Volume VI contains the History of the Republics and Native Territories from 1854 to 1872 (second edition in 1900).

The sources of information consulted by me when preparing an account of the early English and Dutch voyages to India were records in the India Office, London, and in the Archive Office at the Hague, as well as the following printed books:

The Principal Navigations, Voyages, Traffics, and Discoveries of the English Nation, made by Sea or over Land, to the South and South-east parts of the World, by Richard Hakluyt, preacher, two quarto volumes, London, 1599; and *Purchas his Pilgrimes*, five large volumes, London, 1625. Hakluyt's work was the means of his obtaining the curatorship of the historical and geographical documents of the English East India Company. After his death these papers were entrusted to Purchas, by whom many of them were condensed and published in his work above named. The original manuscripts have perished. The dates are according to the old style.

Eerste Schipvaart der Hollanders naer Oost Indien, met vier Schepen onder 't beleydt van Cornelis Houtman uyt Texel ghegaen, Anno 1595. Contained in the collection of voyages known

as *Begin ende Voortgangh van de Vereenighde Nederlantsche Geoctroyeerde Oost Indische Compagnie*, printed in 1646, and also published separately in quarto at Amsterdam in 1648, with numerous subsequent editions. The original journals kept in the different ships of this fleet are still in existence, from which it is seen that the printed work is only a compendium. At the Hague I made verbatim copies for the Cape government of those portions of the original manuscripts referring to South Africa, and I found that one or two curious errors had been made by the compiler of the printed journal. As an instance, the midshipman Frank van der Does, in the ship *Hollandia*, when describing the Hottentots states: "Haer haer opt hooft stadt oft affgeschroijt waer vande zonne, ende sien daer wyt eenich gelyck een dieff die door het langhe hanghen verdroocht is." This is given in the printed journal: "Het hayr op hare hoofden is als 't hayr van een mensche die een tijdt langh ghehanghen heeft," an alteration which turns a graphic sentence into nonsense.

Begin ende Voortgangh van de Vereenighde Nederlantsche Geoctroyeerde Oost Indische Compagnie, vervatende de voornaemste Reyzen by de Inwoonderen derselver Provincien derwaerts gedaen. In two thick volumes. Printed in 1646. This work contains the journals in a condensed form of the fleets under Cornelis Houtman, Pieter Both, Joris van Spilbergen, and others, as also the first charter of the East India Company.

Journael van de Voyagie gedaen met drie Schepen, genaemt den Ram, Schaep, ende het Lam, gevaren uyt Zeelandt, van der Stadt Camp-Vere, naer d' Oost Indien, onder 't beleyt van den Heer Admirael Joris van Spilbergen, gedaen in de jaren 1601, 1602, 1603 en 1604. Contained in the collection of voyages known as *Begin ende Voortgangh van de Vereenighde Nederlantsche Geoctroyeerde Oost Indische Compagnie*, printed in 1646, and also published separately in

quarto at Amsterdam in 1648, with numerous editions thereafter. An account of the naming of Table Bay is to be found in this work.

Loffelycke Voyagie op Oost Indien met 8 Scheepen uyt Tessel gevaren in 't Jaer 1606 onder het beleyt van den Admiraal Paulus van Caerden, haer wech genomen hebbende tusschen Madagascar ende Abissina deur. A pamphlet of forty-eight pages, published at Amsterdam in 1646.

Beschrijvinghe van de tweede Voyagie ghedaen met 12 Schepen naer d' Oost Indien onder den Heer Admiraal Steven van der Hagen, waer inne verhaelt wert het veroveren der Portugeser Forten op Amboyna ende Tydor. A pamphlet of ninety-one pages, printed at Amsterdam in 1616.

de Jonge, J. K. J.: *De Opkomst van het Nederlansch Gewag in Oost Indie. Versameling van onuitgegeven Stukken uit het oudkoloniaal Archief. Uitgegeven en bewerkt door Jhr. Mr. J. K. J. de Jonge.* The Hague and Amsterdam. The first part of this valuable history was published in 1862, the second part in 1864, and the third part in 1865. These three volumes embrace the general history of Dutch intercourse with the East Indies from 1595 to 1610. They contain accounts of the several early trading associations, of the voyages and successes of the fleets sent out, of the events which led to the establishment by the states-general of the great Chartered East India Company, and of the progress of the Company until the appointment of Peter Both as first governor-general. Rather more than half of the work is composed of copies of original documents of interest. The fourth part, published in 1869, is devoted to Java, and with it a particular account of the Eastern possessions is commenced. The history was carried on as far as the tenth volume, which was published in 1878, but the work was unfinished at the time of the author's death in 1880.

When preparing the last two chapters of this book I con-

sulted a quantity of manuscript records in various places and the following printed volumes:—

Prior, James: *Voyage along the Eastern Coast of Africa to Mozambique, Johanna, and Quiloa, in the Nisus frigate*. An octavo volume of one hundred and fourteen pages, published at London in 1819.

Narrative of Voyages to explore the Shores of Africa, Arabia, and Madagascar, performed in H.M. ships Leven and Barracouta, under the direction of Captain W. F. W. Owen, R.N., by command of the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty. Two octavo volumes, London, 1833. The expedition was engaged in surveying the East African coast from Delagoa Bay northward at intervals between October 1822 and September 1825. In these volumes there is a good deal of information concerning the Portuguese settlements.

Botelho, Sebastião Xavier: *Memoria Estatistica sobre os Dominios Portuguezes na Africa Oriental*. A crown octavo volume of four hundred pages, published at Lisbon in 1835. The author of this book was governor and captain general of Mozambique from the 20th of January 1825 to the 21st of August 1829, and therefore one might reasonably expect something authoritative from his pen. But the historical and geographical inaccuracies are so numerous as to prove that his power of observation was small and his capacity for research still less. The book is of very little value. The only chapter in it from which I derived any information at all that I could depend upon is the one containing an account of the prazos of Tete and Sena.

Ensaio sobre a Statistica das Possessões Portuguezas na Africa Occidental e Oriental, na Asia Occidental, na China, e na Oceania, escriptos de ordem do Governo de sua Magestade Fidelissima a Senhora Dona Maria II, por José Joaquim Lopes de Lima e Francisco Maria Bordalo. Three volumes were written before Senhor de Lima's death, and were published at Lisbon 1844

to 1846, but he did not reach as far as Eastern Africa. The work was then entrusted to Senhor Bordalo, who completed it in three more volumes. The first of Bordalo's volumes was published at Lisbon in 1859, and is devoted entirely to Eastern Africa. It has been most carefully written, and as its materials were drawn from original documents in the public records and from other trustworthy sources, it is thoroughly reliable. The author treated his subject in a judicial manner, though, as a patriotic Portuguese, he was unable to detect the true causes of his country's want of success in Eastern Africa. No English writer could deal more severely than he with the general corruption of the seventeenth century, or with the decline and fall of missionary enterprise.

Livingstone, David, M.D.: *A Popular Account of Missionary Travels and Researches in South Africa*. An octavo volume of four hundred and thirty-six pages, published at London in 1861.

de Lacerda, D. José: *Exame das Viagens do Doutor Livingstone*. An octavo volume of six hundred and thirty-five pages, published at Lisbon in 1867.

Delagoa Bay. Correspondence respecting the claims of Her Majesty's Government. A bluebook of two hundred and fifty-one pages, printed at London in 1875, and presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty. This bluebook contains all the documents and maps put in on both sides when the question of the ownership of the southern and eastern shores of Delagoa Bay was referred for decision to the president of the French Republic. The Portuguese submitted their case in their own language, with a French translation in parallel columns, and the latter only appears in the English bluebook. Those who desire to consult the former can do so in the Portuguese yellow-books entitled, *Questão entre Portugal e a Gran-Bretanha sujeita á arbitragem do Presidente da Republica Francesa*, published at Lisbon in 1874.

La Hollande et la Baie-Delagoa, par M. L. van Deventer, Ancien Consul Général des Pays-Bas. An octavo pamphlet of eighty pages, published at the Hague in 1883. There is a great deal of accurate information in this pamphlet, which was prepared after much research in the archives at the Hague and elsewhere.

Estudos sobre as Províncias Ultramarinas, por João de Andrade Corvo, Socio efectivo da Academia Real das Sciencias de Lisboa. Four octavo volumes published at Lisbon, 1883 to 1887. The second volume of this carefully written and reliable work treats solely of the Portuguese possessions on the eastern coast of Africa, and the first and third also contain useful matter upon the same country.

Manica: being a Report addressed to the Minister of the Marine and the Colonies of Portugal. By J. Paiva de Andrada, Colonel of Artillery. A crown octavo pamphlet of sixty-three pages, published at London in 1891.

Selous, Frederick Courteney: *Travel and Adventure in South-East Africa, being the Narrative of the last eleven years spent by the Author on the Zambesi and its Tributaries, with an Account of the Colonisation of Mashunaland and the Progress of the Gold Industry in that Country*. A royal octavo volume of five hundred and three pages, published at London in 1893.

Matabeleland: the War, and our Position in South Africa. By Archibald R. Colquhoun, First Administrator of Mashonaland. A crown octavo volume of one hundred and sixty-seven pages, published in London in 1894.

De Castilho, Augusto: *O Districto de Lourenço Marques no presente e no futuro*. A crown octavo volume of two hundred and thirty-two pages, published at Lisbon in 1882. The first ninety-four pages are occupied with a well written historical and descriptive account of the station of Lourenço Marques, the remainder of the book consists of an appendix

containing copies of treaties, letters and reports concerning a railway to Pretoria, and Marshal Macmahon's award.

A Província de Moçambique e o Bonga. Por Delfim José de Oliveira. A pamphlet of forty-two pages, printed at Coimbra in 1879.

A Expedição da Zambesia em 1869. A pamphlet of forty-eight pages, printed at Nova Goa in 1870.

GEO. M. THEAL.

LONDON, *January* 1802.

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THE BEGINNING OF SOUTH AFRICAN HISTORY.

CHAPTER I.

THE EARLIEST INHABITANTS OF SOUTH AFRICA.

IN the present condition of geological knowledge it is impossible to determine whether South Africa has been the home of human beings for as long a time as Europe, but it is certain that men have roamed over its surface from an exceedingly remote period. The ancient shell mounds along the coast are usually regarded as furnishing one proof of this fact. The first of these that was examined was a heap formerly to be seen in a cave at Mossel Bay, but one much larger has of late years been discovered on the left bank of a tributary of the Buffalo river at East London. Its discovery was due to the opening of a quarry, for it had the semblance of a natural mound, being covered with a deep layer of vegetable soil, in which trees were growing; and this appearance it had presented as far back as could be traced. Upon examination—which was very thorough, as some forty-two thousand cubic yards of it were removed to fill a lagoon—it was found to consist of a mass one hundred and fifty feet long and forty feet deep, composed of oyster, mussel, and other shells, mixed with bones of animals of various kinds, ashes, and pieces of coarse pottery. No stone implements were obtained in it, but stones showing the action of fire were common.

The most ancient shell heaps that have yet been discovered, however, may have had their origin at a time not vastly remote, though beyond doubt a great many centuries must have passed away since such a one as that at East London began to be formed. Much older are various stone implements shaped by human hands, which have been found in situations where they must have lain undisturbed for an incalculable length of time. They have been picked up, for instance, in gravel washed by a stream into a recess when its bed of hard rock was more than forty feet higher than it is at present; in a stratum that once was the muddy bottom of a pond, but is now the crown of a hill, and where they must have been deposited before the commencement of the wearing down of the ravine that separates the hill from a long slope beyond it; and at great depths in æolian rock, where bones of animals and shells are also found.*

None of the spearheads, scrapers, knives, or choppers for cracking bones were ground or polished, as chipping comprised all the labour that was bestowed upon them. They were the products of the skill of man in the lowest stage of his existence. Workshops where they were manufactured have been discovered in various places, and to some of these the raw material, or unchipped stone, must have been brought from a considerable distance. The artisans may have lived there permanently, or, what is more probable, some superstition may have been connected with the localities. At these factories a quantity of stone from which flakes have been struck, some raw material, a very few finished articles, and a great many broken ones usually lie wholly or partially hidden by drift sand or mould, and it is generally by accident that they are discovered.

The most ancient implements were almost as skilfully made as those in use for similar purposes by one section of the inhabitants—the Bushmen—when Europeans first visited the country, but during the long period that must have elapsed the inventive faculty of man had not been entirely idle. One imple-

* See the paper on *The Antiquity of Man in South Africa*, by George R. McKay, Esqre., in the pamphlet No. 2 of *Belangrijke Historische Dokumenten* published by me in Capetown in 1896

ment at least, and that one requiring more skill, time, and patience to prepare it than were needed in forming any of the others, had been brought into general use. The spherical perforated stone, which is not found in any of the oldest deposits, shows a considerable advance in art upon the chipped lance head of the early river gravel washings. Still, progress, though thus measurable, was exceedingly slow during the countless centuries that had passed away. In the earliest stages of man's development three causes must have operated in forcing him to think: hunger, disease, and war. These were the elementary factors of civilisation. In favourable localities in other parts of the world commerce, as a powerful factor, came at a later period, but in South Africa that stage was not easily arrived at.

This is not surprising if the physical condition of the country be considered. The land rises from the ocean level in terraces or steps, until a vast interior plain is reached. Deep gorges have been worn by the action of water, in some places internal forces have caused elevations, in other places depressions, and everywhere along the margins of the terraces distortions may be seen. There are no navigable rivers, and the coast is bold and unbroken. The steep fronts of the terraces, which from the lower side appear to be mountain ranges, and the absence of running water in dry seasons over large surfaces tended likewise to prevent intercourse, not only with the outer world, but between the different parts of the country. The rude people were left to themselves, without that stimulus to improvement which contact with strangers gives. There was no necessity to exert the mind to provide clothing or habitations, for the climate is mild, and even on the elevated interior plain, though the nights in winter are sharp and cold, snow never lies long on the ground. Like the wild animals, man on occasions of severe weather could find some temporary shelter.

Hunger must have forced him to think, to plan the destruction of game, to search for edible plants, and to reject those that were noxious; but after becoming acquainted with the flora in his locality and with the use of poison in the chase, that factor would lose much of its potency. The cultivation of the ground or the

domestication of animals could no more enter the mind of a savage in the early palæolithic stage than into that of a child learning to walk. Disease would compel him to think, but only in an infinitesimal degree when compared with a modern European, for his ailments were few and were in general attributed to witchcraft. War would be a more powerful factor in obliging him to exercise his mind, and to it probably was due the gradual though tardy improvement in his weapons by the selection of harder stone and by fashioning them more carefully. But slow indeed was the progress in cultivation from the hunter who used the roughly formed spear-head of shale found in the æolian conglomerate to the Bushman who shot his bone-tipped arrow at an antelope only a century ago.

At length, however, another class of human beings appeared on the western and southern coasts. Where they came from no one can say, nor how they reached South Africa. Completely isolated, few in number, in many respects differing greatly from Bushmen while in others closely resembling those people, their presence here is as yet an unsolved mystery. That their occupation is only modern is, however, tolerably certain: that is the time that has elapsed since their arrival is but short compared with the long period that Bushmen have been living in the country.

The highest authority upon the Hottentot language, the late Dr. Bleek, was of opinion that these people were of North African origin, and their speech decidedly favours that view. It is possible that in some very remote age and in some locality beyond the equator, a section of the Bushman race was forced to adopt a different language, to mingle its blood with that of conquerors, and to live under circumstances favourable to improvement; and that in course of time one of its offshoots made its way intact to the southern shore. But as the obstacles in the way of such a migration appear to be almost insurmountable, it has been suggested by some writers as more likely that a party of intruding males of light brown or yellow colour, driven down from the north in such vessels as were in use three or four thousand years ago, took to themselves women of Bushman blood, and thus gave origin to the people whom Europeans term

Hottentots. The difficulties to be met by this supposition seem to be as great as those presented by the other, for instance under it the possession of oxen and sheep by the Hottentots cannot be accounted for; so that the question remains as yet entirely speculative.

At a period still later than the advent of the Hottentots, a gradual pressure of the Bantu tribes of Central Africa into the southern part of the continent began to take place. When they crossed the Zambesi cannot be determined, but probably it was earlier than the commencement of the Christian era by many hundreds of years. They did not extend beyond the Limpopo, however, until a much later date. The legends of all the tribes south of that river, none of which can be more than a few centuries old, point to a distant northern origin, and in some instances particulars are given which prove the traditions to be in that respect correct. For instance, the Barolong antiquaries assert that their ancestors, in the time of a chief whose name is still preserved, migrated from a country where there were great lakes and where at one time of the year shadows were cast towards the north.

Towards the close of the fifteenth century of our era, when Europeans first had communication with natives of South Africa, the belt of land comprising the lowest and the second terrace along the western coast from about twenty or thirty miles above Walfish Bay southward to the Cape of Good Hope, and thence eastward to the Umtamvuna river, was occupied—though thinly—by Hottentot tribes. The same people were to be found about the lower courses of the Vaal and Modder rivers and along the banks of the Orange from the junction of the Vaal to the sea. They were not known either on the eastern side of the continent or elsewhere in the interior.

The Bantu at that time occupied the choicest parts of the country north of a straight line from a point a little above Walfish Bay through the head waters of the Vaal river to the second range of mountains from the Indian ocean, and extended south of that line along the eastern coast as far as the Umtamvuna river. They were not to be found in the remaining portion of South Africa.

Bushmen roamed over the entire country south of the Zambesi from sea to sea, and were the only inhabitants of the rugged mountains and arid plains between the Hottentot and Bantu borders. As they could hold their own fairly well against the Hottentots, they were more numerous along the western and southern coasts than along the eastern, where the Bantu had better means of exterminating them.

The skull measurements show great differences in the three races, though the number—especially of Hottentot skulls—carefully examined by competent men is as yet too small for an average to be laid down with absolute precision.

What is termed the horizontal cephalic index, that is the proportion of the breadth of a skull to its length, is given by Professor—now Sir William—Flower, conservator of the museum of the Royal College of Surgeons of England, from thirteen Bantu specimens as 73 to 100. The highest in this series is 76·8, and the lowest 68·4. Dr. Gustaf Fritsch, from thirteen specimens, gives the average as 72 to 100. The highest in this series is 78, and the lowest 64·3. M. Paul Broca, the French authority, gives the average of his measurements as 72. Thus the Bantu are dolichocephali, that is people whose skulls average in breadth less than three-fourths of their length. The average horizontal cephalic index of white people is 78·7.

Of Hottentots, only four that are certainly genuine specimens are given in Professor Flower's volume. The average horizontal cephalic index of these is 72·7, the highest being 75, and the lowest 70·3. Dr. Fritsch had also only four skulls which were certainly those of Hottentots. The average horizontal cephalic index of these he found to be 72·6, the highest being 77, and the lowest 65·9. M. Broca gives this index from his measurements as 72. The Hottentots are thus certainly true dolichocephali.

Of genuine Bushman skulls, Professor Flower gives the measurements of five. The average horizontal cephalic index is 76·6, the highest being 78·4, and the lowest 75·7. The late Dr. George Rolleston, professor of anatomy in the University of Oxford, in an appendix to Oates' *Matabeleland*, gives the measurements of six Bushman skulls in the museum of the university.

The average horizontal cephalic index he found to be 75·7, the highest being 81, and the lowest 70. Dr. Fritsch measured five Bushman skulls, and found the average horizontal cephalic index 74·2, the highest being 78·5, and the lowest 69·5. M. Broca found the average of his measurements as low as 72, but it is doubtful whether his specimens were not Hottentot skulls. It would appear that the Bushmen are on the border line separating the dolichocephalic from the mesaticephalic races, the breadth of skulls of the latter averaging between three-fourths and four-fifths of the length.

The cranial capacity, or size of the brain of each, is given by Professor Flower as: Bantu 1485, Hottentot 1407, and Bushman 1288 cubic centimetres. The average brain of a European is 1497 cubic centimetres in size. Dr. Rolleston found the average cranial capacity of his six Bushman specimens as low as 1195 cubic centimetres, and all other recorded measurements place these people among the extreme microcephalic or small-skulled races. The Hottentots in this classification are mesocephali, a name applied to races whose average cranial capacity is between 1350 and 1450 cubic centimetres, and the Bantu, like Europeans, are megacephali or large-skulled.

The alveolar index, index of prognathism, or the slope of a line from the top of the forehead to the point in the upper jaw between the insertion of the front teeth, is an important characteristic. According to the angle which this line makes with the horizontal plane of the skull, races are classified as orthognathous, mesognathous, or prognathous. In this classification the Bushman comes nearest the European, his face being much more vertical than that of either of the others. Between the Hottentots and the Bantu there is scarcely any difference.

A marked feature of the Bushman skull is the smallness of the lower jaw and the want of prominence of the chin. In this respect he is among the least advanced of all races. The lower jaw of the Hottentot is much better formed, but is not by any means as massive as that of a member of the Bantu family or a European. The skulls of these South African races also differ from each other and from those of Europeans in many particulars

which are only intelligible to professional anatomists. This subject can be studied in special works, and it is not necessary therefore to enter more deeply into it here.

The greatest differences between the three divisions of people who lived in South Africa in ancient times are now believed to be in the constitution of their minds, but early observers did not detect these. The variations which they noticed were chiefly the following:

Bushmen: frame dwarfish,* colour yellowish brown, face fox-like in outline, eyes small and deeply sunk, head dotted over with little knots of twisted hair not much larger than peppercorns, ears without lobes, stomach protuberant, back exceedingly hollow, limbs slender; weapons bow and poisoned arrow; pursuits those of a hunter; government none but parental; habitations caverns or mats spread over branches of trees; domestic animal the dog; demeanour that of perfect independence; language abounding in clicks and in deep guttural sounds.

Hottentots: frame slight but sometimes tall, better formed than Bushmen, but back hollow, head scantily covered with little tufts of short crisped hair, cheeks hollow, nose flat, eyes far apart and often to appearance set obliquely, hands and feet small, colour yellow to olive; weapons assagai, knobkerie, bow and poisoned arrow, shield; pursuits pastoral and to a very limited extent metallurgic; government feeble; habitations slender frames of wood covered with skins or reed mats; domestic animals ox, sheep, and dog; demeanour inconstant, marked by levity; language abounding in clicks.

Bantu: frame of those on the coast generally robust and as well formed as that of Europeans, of those in the interior somewhat weaker, head covered closely with crispy hair, cheeks full, nose usually flat but occasionally prominent, hands and feet large, colour brown to deep black; weapons assagai, knobkerie, shield, and among the northern tribes battle-axe and bow and arrow;

* Occasionally among the Masarwa, or Bushmen of the Betschuana country, individuals over five feet and a half in height are found, but these are to a certainty mixed breeds. They show Bantu blood in their darker colour as well as in their general form and size.

pursuits agricultural, pastoral, and metallurgic; government firmly constituted, with perfect system of laws; habitations strong framework of wood covered with thatch; domestic animals ox, goat, sheep, dog, barnyard poultry; demeanour ceremonious, grave, respectful to superiors in rank; language musical, words abounding in vowels and inflected to produce harmony in sound.

THE BUSHMEN, TERMED BY THE HOTTENTOTS SANA, BY THE
BANTU ABATWA.

The pigmy hunters, who were the oldest inhabitants of South Africa, received from the first European colonists the name of Bushmen, on account of their preference for places abounding in bushes, where they had a wonderful faculty of concealing themselves, owing to the colour of their skins being almost the same as that of the soil. They were members of a race that in early ages was spread over the whole continent south of the Sahara, and of which remnants still exist on both sides of the equator.

Their language has not been examined very carefully, except by the late Dr. Bleek and by Miss L. Lloyd, whose researches have only partly been published. It is known, however, to be low in order as a means of expressing any but the simplest ideas, and to be divided into a great number of dialects, some of which vary as widely as English from German. Many of its apparent roots are polysyllabic, but there is a doubt whether some of these are not really composites. It is so irregular in its construction that the plural of nouns is often formed by reduplication, as if we should say "dog dog" instead of "dogs," and sometimes a plural idea is expressed by a word which has nothing in common with the one which expresses the singular. Yet there is an instance of a dual form in the first personal pronoun. In none of the dialects has any word for a numeral higher than three been discovered, from that number up to ten being indicated by showing fingers, and all beyond being termed a great many. Dr. Bleek and Miss Lloyd found that the language could be repre-

sented in writing, though to the ear it sounds like a continuous clattering combined with hoarse sounds proceeding from the depths of the throat.

The Bushmen inhabited the deserts, which they possessed undisturbed by invasions of other races, and the mountains in those parts that were occupied by Hottentots and Bantu, against whom they carried on incessant war.

A cave with its opening protected by a few branches of trees, or the centre of a small circle of bushes over which mats or skins of wild animals were stretched, was the best dwelling that they aspired to possess. Failing either of these, they scooped a hole in the ground, placed a few sticks or stones round it, and spread a mat or a skin above to serve as a roof. A little grass at the bottom of the hole formed a bed, and though it was not much larger than the nest of an ostrich, a whole family could manage to lie down in it.

The ordinary food of these people consisted of roots, berries, wild plants, locusts, larvæ of ants—now commonly called Bushman rice by European colonists,—reptiles, birds, and mammalia of all kinds. No chance of plundering the pastoral tribes of domestic cattle was allowed to escape them. They were capable of remaining a long time without food,* and could then gorge immense quantities of meat without any ill effects. They were careless of the future, and were happy if the wants of the moment were supplied. Thus, when a large animal was killed, no trouble was taken to preserve a portion of its flesh, but the time was spent in alternate gorging and sleeping until not a particle of carrion was left. When a drove of domestic cattle was stolen, several were slaughtered at once and their carcasses shared with birds of prey, while if their recapture was considered possible, every animal was hamstrung or killed. Such wanton destruction caused them to be detested by the other dwellers in the land, by whom they were regarded simply as wild animals. Even in the

* Dr. Alfred Hillier, who has made a special study of these people, is of opinion that this is at least partly due to the great quantity of adipose matter stored up in their protuberant hips, which is most observable when they have abundance of food.

last years of the nineteenth century missionaries have only with much difficulty been able to persuade the most intelligent Bantu that Bushmen had rights as human beings, which it behoved them to respect.

Their weapons were bows and arrows. The bows were nothing more than pieces of saplings or branches of trees about four feet in length, scraped down a little, and strung with a thong of raw hide or a cord formed by twisting together the sinews of animals. The arrows were from twenty to thirty inches in length, made of reeds pointed generally with bone, but sometimes with sharp stone flakes, and with triangular iron heads whenever these were taken from Hottentot enemies. The arrowhead and the lashing by which it was secured to the reed were coated with a deadly poison, so that the slightest wound caused death. The arrows were carried in a quiver usually made of the bark of a species of euphorbia, which is still called by Europeans in South Africa the *kokerboom* or quiver tree. They were formidable solely on account of the poison, as they could not be projected with accuracy to any great distance, and had but little force. In after years the colonists considered their clothing ample protection at fifty yards' distance. The Bushmen made pits for entrapping game, and also poisoned pools of water, so that any animal that drank perished.

They used stone flakes for various purposes, but took no trouble to polish them or give them a neat appearance. Their knives, scrapers, and awls for piercing skins were commonly made of horn or bone. There was a stone implement, however, which was in general use. It was a little spherical boulder, from three to six inches in diameter, such as may be picked up in abundance in many parts of the country, through the centre of which the Bushman drilled a hole large enough to receive a digging-stick, to which it gave weight. With the tools at his disposal, this must have required much time and patience, so that in his eyes a stone when drilled undoubtedly had a very high value. On it he depended for food in seasons of drought, when all the game had fled from his part of the country. Drilled stones from an inch to three inches in diameter have occasionally been found in

tracts of country once inhabited by Bushmen, but from which those savages have long since disappeared. None so small as these have been noticed in use in recent times. It is conjectured that they were intended as amulets.

There is no record of a European having ever seen a Bushman manufacturing stone implements, and no one appears to have made inquiry into the matter until it was too late to derive any information from the people themselves. When they were first met, they had such implements in use, and wherever they lived such implements are still to be found, hence it is assumed that they made them.

In many other parts of the world perforated stones are plentiful, but most of them differ in some respects from those drilled by the Bushmen, which were all of one type. In the Antiquarian Museum at Edinburgh there is a very fine collection of such stones found in Scotland. There are small ones evidently used in comparatively recent times as weights for nets and in spinning, there are enormously large ones also of not very ancient manufacture, and there are many four or five inches in diameter, the usual size of the Bushman implement. Some are elegantly ornamented, showing the use of tools of metal. Others have holes the same size throughout, leading to a similar conclusion. Those that have holes narrowing from both sides towards the centre, like all the Bushman stones, are usually flat at top and bottom, not globular in form. The Bushman for some unknown reason preferred an approximate sphere, thus any observant eye with a series of each in view would at once detect that they were made by different classes of workmen.

A few chipped flakes and other weapons of stone much larger than those ordinarily used by Bushmen have been picked up in South Africa in situations where it is supposed they cannot have been left by individuals of the stronger Hottentot race, and these have given rise to an opinion that the country may once have been occupied by more robust savages. Traditional stories have been gathered from Bushmen themselves, in which they speak of an older race. But weapons made by Hottentots for their own use could have been taken from them and removed to a great

distance by their puny enemies, and the traditions probably refer to the supplanting of one horde by another in a particular locality. There is no other evidence that the Bushmen were not the earliest inhabitants of South Africa, and this seems altogether too slight a foundation to build a theory upon.

People in a low condition of society do not use clothing for purposes of modesty, but to protect themselves against inclement weather. And as the Bushmen were hardly affected by any degree of either heat or cold that is experienced in this country, whether on the plains in midsummer or on the mountains in midwinter, the raiment of the males was usually scanty, and in the chase was thrown entirely aside. At the best it consisted merely of the skin of an animal wrapped round the person. Adult females wore a little apron, and fastened a skin over their shoulders in such a way that an infant could be carried on their backs. Both sexes used belts, which in times of scarcity they tightened to assuage the pangs of hunger, and whenever they had the means they rubbed their bodies with grease and clay or soot, which made them even more ugly than they were by nature.

When the men expected to meet an enemy, they fastened their arrows in an erect position round their heads, in order to appear as formidable as possible. But they never exposed themselves unnecessarily to danger, and tried always to attack from an ambush or a place that would give them the advantage of striking the first blow before their adversaries were aware of their presence. A poisoned arrow, shot from a little scrub in which a Bushman was lying concealed, often ended the career of an unwary Hottentot traveller.

The Bushmen wore few ornaments, not because they were careless about decorating their persons, but because it was difficult to obtain anything for the purpose. They were without metal, and in the vast interior, as they knew nothing of commerce, they could not obtain sea-shells. Yet some of them contrived to make necklaces, which were worn by the men and women, not by the children. They cut little circular disks of tortoise and ostrich egg shells, drilled holes in them, and strung them on thongs. It

requires some reflection to realise the amount of patient labour expended upon a single ornament of this kind, manufactured with stone and bone implements. In other cases they made grooves round the teeth of animals, and then strung a number together.

A consideration of how much value such a simple implement as a tinder-box would have had to these people may aid in enabling a European to comprehend the life that they led. They knew how to procure fire by twirling a piece of wood round rapidly in the socket of another piece, but the preparation of the apparatus took much time, and a considerable amount of labour was needed to produce a flame. Under these circumstances, it was a task of the women to preserve a fire when once made, and as they moved their habitations to a large animal when it was killed, instead of trying to carry the meat away, this was often a difficult matter. Sometimes it necessitated carrying a burning stick fifteen or twenty miles, or when it was nearly consumed, kindling a fire for the sole purpose of getting another brand to go on with. No small amount of labour would therefore have been saved by the possession of a flint and a piece of steel.

These wild people lived in small societies, often consisting of only a couple of families. The early Dutch colonists observed that they were amazingly prolific, a circumstance that is not surprising if one reflects that they were much less subject to disease than Europeans, and that every woman without exception bore children. Still, living as they did in a state of constant strife not only with the other races but among themselves, their numbers were kept small, for a very large proportion of them died by violence.

They were vindictive, passionate, and cruel in the extreme, though after the colonisation of the country Europeans often observed that many of those who lived temporarily on farms were not insensible to acts of kindness, and were even capable of feeling gratitude. In this respect they were like those wild animals that in a state of restraint show attachment to their keepers. Human life, even that of their nearest kindred, was sacrificed on very slight provocation. They did not understand

what quarter in battle meant, and as they never spared an enemy who was in their power, when themselves surrounded so that all hope of escape was gone, they fought till their last man fell.

Their manner of living was such as to develop only qualities essential to hunters. In keenness of vision and fleetness of foot they were surpassed by no people on earth, they could travel immense distances without taking rest, and yet their frames were so feeble as to be incapable of protracted labour.

They possessed an intense love of liberty and of their wild wandering way of life. Hereditary chieftainship was not recognised by them. It sometimes happened that the bravest or most expert of a party became a leader in predatory excursions, but his authority did not extend to the exercise of judicial control. Each man was independent of every other. Even parental authority was commonly disregarded by a youth as soon as he could provide for his own wants.

They were firm believers in charms and witchcraft, and were always in dread of violating some custom—as for instance avoiding casting a shadow upon dying game—which they believed would cause disaster. A Bushman would not make a hole in the sandy bed of a river in order to obtain water, without first offering a little piece of meat, or some larvæ of ants, or an arrow if he had nothing else, to propitiate the spirit of the stream. And so with every act of his life, something had to be done or avoided to avert evil.

Their reasoning power was very low. They understood the habits of wild animals better than anything else, yet they believed the different species of game could converse with each other, and that there were animals and human beings who could exchange their forms at will, for instance that there were girls who could change themselves into lions, and baboons that could put on the appearance of men. The moon, according to the ideas of some of them, was a living thing, according to the notions of others it was a piece of hide which a man threw into the sky. In the same way the stars were once human beings, or they were pieces of food hurled into the air. As well might one attempt to get reasons for their fancies from European children five or six

years of age as from Bushmen: the reflective faculties of one were as fully developed as of the other.

Dr. Bleek and Miss Lloyd obtained from several individuals prayers to the moon and to stars. But everything connected with their religion—that is their dread of something outside of and more powerful than themselves—was vague and uncertain. They could give no explanation whatever about it, and indeed they did not all hold the same opinions on the subject.

It is difficult to conceive of a human being in a more degraded condition than that of a Bushman. In some respects, however, he showed considerable ability, and there was certainly an enormous gulf between him and the highest of the brute creation. He possessed extraordinary powers of mimicry. Enclosed in a framework covered with the skin of an ostrich, he was in the habit of stalking game, and, by carefully keeping his prey to windward, was able to approach within shooting distance, when the poison of his arrow completed the task. He could imitate the peculiarities of individuals of other races with whom he came in contact, and was fond of creating mirth by exhibiting them in the drollest manner.

He was also an artist. On the walls of caves and the sheltered sides of great rocks he drew rude pictures in profile of the animals with which he was acquainted. The tints were made with different kinds of ochre having considerable capability of withstanding the decay of time, and they were mixed with grease, so that they penetrated the rock more or less deeply according to its porousness. There are caves on the margins of rivers containing paintings which have been exposed to the action of water during occasional floods for at least a hundred years, and the colours are yet unfaded where the rock has not crumbled away.

In point of artistic merit, however, the paintings were seldom superior to the drawings on slates of European children eight or nine years of age, though there were occasional instances of game being delineated not only in a fairly correct but in a graceful manner, showing that some of the workmen possessed more skill than others. In none of them was any knowledge of perspective or of shading displayed. Two colours were sometimes used, as,

for instance, the head or legs of an animal might be white, and the remainder of the body brown, but each colour was evenly laid on as far as it went. In short, the paintings might have been mistaken for the work of children, but for the impressions of the hands often accompanying them, and the scenes being chiefly those of the chase.

In some places, where the face of the rock was very dark, the Bushman drew an outline of a figure, and then chipped away the surface within it. The labour required for such a task, without metallic implements, must have been great, and the workman was undoubtedly possessed of much patience. He was a sculptor in the elementary stage of the art.

These wild people possessed too a faculty—it might almost be termed an additional sense—of which Europeans are destitute. They could make their way in a straight line to any place where they had been before. Even a child of nine or ten years of age, removed from its parents to a distance of over a hundred miles and without opportunity of observing the features of the country traversed, could months later return unerringly. They could give no explanation of the means by which they accomplished a task seemingly so difficult. Many of the inferior animals, however, have this faculty, as notably the dove, so that it is not surprising to find the lowest type of man in possession of it.

If the stone, horn, and bone implements and the shell beads already mentioned be excluded, the Bushmen had little knowledge of manufactures. They had not advanced beyond the stage of making the coarsest kind of pottery, and even this was extremely limited in use. Add to it rush mats and net bags of fibres, in which their women carried ostrich egg shells filled with water, and the list is exhausted.

The life led by these savages was in truth a wretched one, judged from a European standard. They had no contact with people beyond their own little communities, except in war, for they were without a conception of commerce. If a pestilence had swept them all from the face of the earth, nothing more would have been left to mark where they had once been than the drilled stones, rudely shaped arrowheads, rough pottery, rock paintings, and crude sculptures. Their pleasures were hardly superior to

those of dumb animals. They had a musical instrument like a bow, with a piece of quill attached to the string, but the sounds produced from it by strong inhalations and exhalations of the breath could hardly be termed harmonious. Their dancing was a mere quivering of the body and stamping of the feet. The games that they practised were chiefly—if not entirely—imitation hunts, in which some or all of them represented animals. In this pastime they displayed much cleverness, whether they acted as men or as lions in pursuit of antelopes. But it was not often that they engaged in play, for the effort to sustain existence was with them severe and almost constant.

At early dawn the Bushman rose from his mat or bed of grass in a cavern on the side of a hill, and scanned the valley or plain below in search of game. If any living thing was within range of his far-seeing eye, he grasped his bow and quiver of arrows, and with his dog set off in pursuit. His wife—he had but one, for he was a strict monogamist—and his children followed, carrying fire and collecting bulbs and anything else that was edible on the way. They could pursue his track unerringly by indications that would escape the keenest European eye: a broken twig, a freshly turned stone, or bent blades of grass being sufficient to guide them in the right direction. At nightfall, if they were fortunate, they collected about the body of an antelope, and there they remained till nothing that could be consumed was left. And so from day to day and year to year life passed on, without anything of an intellectual nature to ennoble it.

It can now be asserted in positive language that these people were incapable of adopting European civilisation. During the first half of the nineteenth century agents of various missionary societies made strenuous efforts for their improvement, and often believed they had in some cases succeeded and in others were in a fair way towards success. Men more devoted to their work than many of these missionaries have never existed, and it would be unjust to accuse them of wilfully misstating the result of their teaching, but the very excess of their zeal and their dwelling constantly upon the expression that the whole human race is of one blood, without reflecting that different branches of the race even in Europe are incapable of thinking alike led them to distort

what they saw and heard, so that their reports are commonly misleading. In these reports Bushmen were represented as having become civilised and Christian. But no one else ever saw those transformed savages, and no trace of them exists at the present day. The wild people in the missionary writings are described as offshoots of a higher stock, degraded by oppression or neglect, and needing only instruction and gentle treatment to elevate them again. Some of the reasoning in favour of this theory is highly acute, but it is not borne out by the deeper investigations of our day.

Apart from missionary teaching also many persons tried during long years to induce families of Bushmen to abandon their savage habits, and there were even experiments in providing groups of them with domestic cattle, in order to encourage a pastoral life, but all were without success. To this day there has not been a single instance of a Bushman of pure blood having permanently adopted the habits of a white man, though a few mixed breeds are to be found among the least skilful class of labourers in some parts of the country. Even these are generally too feeble in body to endure anything like severe toil, and unless they intermingle with blacks—as in the instance of the degraded Batlapin tribe—quickly decrease in number. Those of unmixed blood could not exist in presence of a high civilisation, but dwindled away rapidly, and have now nearly died out altogether. It would seem that for them progress was possible in no other way than by exceedingly slow development and blending their blood in successive stages with races always a little more advanced.

THE HOTTENTOTS, TERMED BY THE BANTU AMALAWU.

The Hottentots termed themselves Khoikhoi, men of men, as they prided themselves upon their superiority over the other race with which they were best acquainted, and in fact they were considerably more advanced towards civilisation than the Bushmen, though a stranger at first sight might not have seen much difference in personal appearance between the two. A little observation, however, would have shown that the Bushmen were not only smaller and uglier, but that their faces were broader,

their eyes not nearly as full and bright, their lobeless ears rounder in shape, and their chins less prominent. Their wild expression also was not observed in the Hottentot face.

The investigations of the late Dr. Bleek have shown that the languages of these two classes of people were not only different in the words, but that they varied in construction. That spoken by the Hottentots was free of deep guttural sounds, and though it was accompanied by much clapping of the tongue, the clicks were not so numerous as in Bushman speech. It was inflected by means of affixes only, which placed it in contrast with the Bantu language, as this was inflected chiefly by prefixes. It had three numbers, singular, dual, and plural. Its system of notation was decimal, and was perfect at least up to a hundred. Some words were composites, but most were monosyllables, as were all the roots. The liquid consonant *l* was wanting. There were many dialects, but these did not vary more than the forms of English spoken in different counties.

No difficulty has been experienced by European missionaries in reducing this language to writing, and some religious literature has been printed in it. Words to express ideas unknown before were formed from well-known roots according to its grammatical structure, and were at once understood by every one. This is sufficient to show that it was of a high order. It is now, however, rapidly dying out, as the descendants of the people who once used it have long since learned to converse in Dutch, and by force of circumstances nearly all have forgotten their ancestral speech.

The Hottentots were divided into a number of tribes, each of which was usually composed of several clans loosely joined together. The tribes were frequently at war with each other. Every clan had its own hereditary chief, whose authority, however, was very limited, as his subjects were impatient of control. The succession was from father to son, and in the absence of a son to brother or nephew. The several heads of clans recognised the supremacy in rank of one of their number, who was accounted the paramount chief of the tribe, but unless he happened to be a man of more force of character than the others, he exercised no real power over them. The petty rulers were commonly jealous of each other, so that they could only unite in cases of extreme

danger to all. The government was thus particularly frail, and a very slight shock was sufficient to break any combination of the people into fragments.

The principal property of the Hottentots consisted of horned cattle and sheep. They had great skill in training oxen to obey certain calls, as well as to carry burdens, and bulls were taught not only to assist in guarding the herds from robbers and beasts of prey, but to aid in war by charging the enemy on the field of battle. The milk of their cows was the chief article of their diet. They did not kill horned cattle for food, except on occasions of feasting, but they ate all that died a natural death. The ox of the Hottentot was an inferior animal to that of Europe. He was a gaunt, bony creature, with immense horns and long legs, but he was hardy and well adapted to supply the wants of his owner. He served instead of a horse for riding purposes, being guided by a riem or thong of raw hide attached to a piece of wood passed through the cartilage of his nose. The sheep were covered with hair instead of wool, were of various colours, and had long lapping ears and tails six or seven pounds in weight. The milk as well as the flesh was used for food. Children were taught to suck the ewes, and often derived their whole sustenance from this source. The only other domestic animal was the dog. He was an ugly creature, his body being shaped like that of a jackal, and the hair on his spine being turned forward; but he was a faithful, serviceable animal of his kind.

In addition to milk and the meat of oxen and sheep, of which they rejected no part except the gall, the food of the Hottentots consisted of the flesh of game obtained in the chase, locusts, and various kinds of wild plants and fruits. Agriculture, even in its simplest forms, was not practised by them. They knew how to make an intoxicating drink of honey, of which large quantities were to be had in the season of flowers, and this they used to excess while it lasted. Another powerful intoxicant with which they were acquainted was dacha, a species of wild hemp, and whenever this was procurable they smoked it with a pipe made of the horn of an antelope. That its effects were pernicious was admitted by themselves, still they could not refrain from making use of it.

Their women were better clothed than those of the Bushmen, but the men were usually satisfied with very little covering, and had no sense of shame in appearing altogether naked. The dress of both sexes was made of skins, commonly prepared with the hair on. When removed from the animal, the skin was cleansed of any fleshy matter adhering to it, was then stretched and dried, and was afterwards rubbed with grease till it became soft and pliable. The ordinary costume of a man was merely a piece of jackal skin suspended in front, and a little slip of prepared hide behind. In cold weather he wrapped himself in a kaross or mantle of furs sewed together with sinews. The women wore at all times a headdress of fur, an apron, and a wrapper or a girdle of leather strings suspended from the waist. In cold weather, or when carrying infants on their backs, they added a scanty kaross. Children wore no clothing whatever. Round their legs the females sewed strips of raw hide like rings, which, when dry, rattled against each other and made a noise when they moved.

Both sexes ornamented their heads with copper trinkets, and hung round their necks strings of shells, leopards' teeth, or any other glittering objects they could obtain. Ivory armlets were worn by the men. From earliest infancy their bodies were smeared with grease and rubbed over with clay, soot, or powdered buchu, and to this partly may be attributed the stench of their persons. The coat of grease and clay was not intended for ornament alone. It protected them from the weather and from the vermin that infested their huts and clothing.

Their dwellings were oval or circular frames of light undressed wood, sometimes covered with skins, but usually with mats made of rushes. They were not more than five feet in height, and had but one small opening through which the inmates crawled. In cold weather a fire was made in a cavity in the centre. The huts of a kraal were arranged in the form of a circle, the space enclosed being used as a fold for cattle. They could be taken to pieces, placed on pack-oxen, removed to a distance, and set up again, with very little labour and no waste.

The weapons used by the Hottentots in war and the chase were bows and arrows, sticks with clubbed heads, and assagais. They usually covered the head of the arrow with poison, so that

a wound from one, however slight, was mortal. The assagai could be hurled with precision to a distance of thirty yards. The knobkerie, or clubbed stick, was almost as formidable a weapon. It was rather stouter than an ordinary walking cane, and had a round head two or three inches in diameter. Boys were trained to throw this with so accurate an aim as to hit a bird on the wing at twenty or thirty yards distance. It was projected in such a manner as to bring the heavy knob into contact with the object aimed at, and antelopes as large as goats had their legs broken or were killed outright with it. The bow was a weapon of little force, and the arrows would have been harmless to large game if they had not been poisoned.

The Hottentots were acquainted with the art of smelting iron, but were too indolent to turn their knowledge to much account. Only a few assagai and arrow heads were made of that metal. Horn and bone were ready at hand, were easily worked, and were commonly used to point weapons. Stone was also employed by some of the tribes for this purpose, but not to any great extent, though weights for digging sticks were formed of it by them as by the Bushmen. Masses of almost solid copper were obtained in Namaqualand, and this metal was spread over the neighbouring country by means of barter and war, but was not used for any other purpose than that of making ornaments for the person.

In the districts that they occupied a very few polished implements of shale have been found in situations where they must have lain a considerable time. They consist of arrow heads whose points have been ground, and disks like quoits with sharp edges, which are supposed to have been held in the hand and used in combat. No European has ever seen such implements in the possession of a Hottentot, or ever heard them spoken of, and any remarks concerning them can only be founded on conjecture. But few as is the number of such ground stones as yet discovered, they are evidence that there was a time when individuals—if not tribes,—not Bantu, in South Africa were in the neolithic stage of progress, though it is possible that iron may have been in use at the same period.

The Hottentots manufactured earthenware pots for cooking purposes, which, though in general clumsily shaped and coarse in

appearance, were capable of withstanding intense heat. Milk was kept in skin bags or in large bowls made by hollowing out blocks of wood. Ostrich egg shells and ox horns were used for carrying water and other domestic purposes.

Some small and weak clans of Hottentots who had lost their cattle in war or by disease lived along the shore, and depended for existence upon the produce of the sea. They had neither boats nor hooks, but they managed to catch fish by throwing spears from rocks standing out in deep water and by making stone walls across gullies in order to enclose considerable spaces which were nearly dry at low tide. Shell-fish also formed a portion of their food, and occasionally a dead whale would drift ashore and furnish them with a feast. Shell and ash heaps made by these people bearing signs of being quite modern, that is dating back only hundreds, not thousands of years, are found in many places along the coast from Walfish Bay to Natal.

The heaps contain ordinary Hottentot implements, in rare instances human skeletons, and generally bones of animals obtained in the chase, always broken in order that the marrow might be extracted. The perforated stone weights found in them are usually of the shape of compressed spheres, nearly resembling in form those of Scotland referred to on a previous page, which has given rise to the supposition that those made by Hottentots were always of a distinct type from those made by Bushmen. This is, however, not certain,* though only spherical weights are picked up in South Africa in tracts of country that were exclusively occupied by Bushmen, and compressed spheres are common wherever Hottentots lived, where also there are a few stones that have first been perforated and then chipped into a convenient shape for use. The coarse earthenware pots that are found in these recent shell heaps frequently have a number of holes neatly drilled in them, sometimes near the bottom, in order to make them serve as strainers.

Hottentots were found living in the manner here indicated when Europeans first came to the country, and on the coast of Namaqualand there were some existing in a similar state after

* In the British Museum there is a round flat perforated stone found in Central Africa, which cannot have been manufactured by Hottentots.

the middle of the nineteenth century. As far as food, clothing, and lodging were concerned, they were in no better condition than Bushmen, but there was always the hope before them of acquiring cattle by a successful raid, in which case they would at once revert to the ordinary mode of living of their race.

The whole of the recent shell heaps on the South African coast, however, were not made by impoverished Hottentots. Some were made by Bushmen, as is proved by the paintings on rocks overhanging the deposits, and these may be taken as forming a connected series with the most ancient mounds. There must also have been mixed breeds along the coast in former times, as there are to-day in the territory about the lower Vaal river, and some of the remains may be due to them. These mixed breeds arose from the union of Hottentot men with captured Bushwomen, for though the races were constantly at war, young females were generally spared by the less savage of the two.

The Hottentots were a superstitious people, who placed great faith in the efficacy of charms to ward off evil. They believed that certain occurrences foreboded good or ill luck, that a mantis alighting on a hut brought prosperity with it, and many other absurdities of a like nature. They lived in dread of ghosts and evil spirits. They invoked blessings from the moon, to whose praise they sang and danced when it appeared as new. They also invoked blessings from dead ancestors, to whose shades sacrifices were offered by priests on important occasions, and they implored protection and favour from a mythical hero named Heitsi-eibib, who was believed to have died and risen again many times, and whose worship consisted in throwing a bit of wood or an additional stone upon a cairn. Cairns of considerable size raised in this manner are to be found at the present day within territory occupied by Bantu tribes, showing, like many other indications, that the Hottentots once occupied a larger area than when Europeans became acquainted with them. They made offerings also to a powerful evil spirit, with a view of averting his wrath. Their system of religion could not be explained by themselves, what they understood being little more than that the customs connected with it had come down to them from their ancestors.

They had not the faintest expectation of their own resurrection, or conception of a heaven and a hell.

A more improvident, unstable, thoughtless people never existed. Those among them who had cattle were without care or grief, and usually spent the greater part of the day in sleeping. They delighted, however, in dancing to music, which they produced from reeds. Active in this exercise and in hunting, in all other respects they were extremely indolent. Their filthiness of person, clothing, and habitation was disgusting. They enjoyed eating food that would have turned the stomach of the least delicate of Europeans, for the sense of smelling with them—as with all people of a low type—was extremely dull. Still they were not without good qualities. Their tempers were in general mild, and their hospitality to peaceable strangers as well as to people of their own clan was unbounded.

They were in the habit of abandoning aged and helpless persons as well as sickly and deformed children, whom they allowed to perish of hunger. But they regarded this as mercy, not as cruelty. Better that a helpless wretch or a cripple should give up life at once than linger on in misery. For the same reason, when a woman giving suck died, the child was buried with its parent.

The Hottentots were polygamous in the sense that their customs admitted of a wealthy man having more wives than one, but the practice was by no means general. There were many kraals in which there was not a single case of polygamy. It was customary with some, perhaps with all, to take wives not from their own but from another clan. The marriage customs required that cattle should be given by the bridegroom to the nearest relatives of the bride, but temporary unions were common, and indeed a system almost as bad as that of free love prevailed, for chastity on both sides was very lightly regarded.

The women were more nearly the equals of the men, and were permitted to exercise much greater freedom of speech in domestic disputes, than among most savages. They were mistresses within the huts. The stores of milk were under their control, not under that of their husbands, as was the case with the Bantu tribes. The men tended the cattle, but their daughters milked the cows.

Among some—not all—of the Hottentot clans there was a custom which, though described by many early observers, has within the nineteenth century without sufficient investigation been regarded by most writers as so utterly incredible that they have not noticed it. Yet it is practised at the present day by people who are certainly not of Hottentot blood, but who must have derived their language as well as many of their customs from Hottentot conquerors in times long gone by. It stands to them in the same relation that circumcision does to many Bantu clans, that is among them a youth cannot enter the society of men or take to himself a wife until he has become a *monorch* (*μόνορχος*). A custom so extraordinary shows what force habit and superstition have among savages.

With all their degrading habits, the Hottentots possessed large powers of imagination. They speculated upon objects in nature in a way that no Bantu ever did, and their ideas on these subjects, though seemingly absurd, at least bore evidence of a disposition to think. They were excellent story-tellers. Seated round fires of an evening, they told tales of the doings of men and of animals—usually the baboon or the jackal—which produced boundless mirth. These stories generally contained coarse and obscene expressions, or what Europeans would regard as such, but their sense of delicacy in these matters was naturally low.

The evening with them, as probably with all barbarians, was the time for enjoyment. What could be more cheerful than the dance in the bright moonlight or listening to a merry tale by a fire under a starry sky? Then the young men tried their strength in wrestling matches, or in lifting one another from the ground, while the young women looked on and applauded the successful competitors. Then, too, they played games which, though apparently suited to the capacities of little children only, afforded them much amusement. The commonest of these games was adopted by the Bantu on the eastern border when they conquered the Hottentots there, and is performed by adults among them to-day, though the people with whom it originated have long since forgotten it.

It was played by two persons or any number exceeding two. The players sat on the ground, and each had a pebble so small

that it could easily be concealed in a folded hand. If there were many players they formed themselves into sides or parties, but when they were few in number one played against the rest. This one concealed the pebble in either of his hands, and then threw both arms out against his opponent, at the same time calling that he met or that he evaded. His opponent threw his arms out in the same manner, so that his right hand was opposite the first player's left, and his left opposite the first player's right. The clenched hands were then opened, and if the pebbles were found to meet, the first player won if he had called out that he met, or lost if he had called out that he evaded. When there were many players, one after another was beaten until only two were left. These two then played against each other, when the one who was beaten was laughed at and the winner was applauded. In playing, the arms were thrown out very quickly, and the words were rapidly uttered, so that a stranger to the game might have fancied there was neither order nor rule observed. Young men and boys often spent whole nights in this childish amusement, which had the same hold upon them as dice upon some Europeans.

Probably, if intellectual enjoyment be excluded, the Hottentots were among the happiest people in existence. They generally lived until old age without serious illness. They did not allow possible future troubles to disturb them, and a sufficiency of food was all that was needed to make them as merry and light-hearted as children at play.

They were capable of adopting the habits of Europeans, though the process required to be so gradual that the training of two centuries and a half has been very far from sufficient to complete it. They have learned to cultivate the ground, to use the same food as white people, to wear European clothing, and to act as rough handicraftsmen, but there is no instance of one of them having ever attained a position that required either much intellectual power or much mechanical skill. Since they came in contact with Europeans and African slaves, however, their blood has been so mixed that, except in Great Namaqualand and along the lower banks of the Orange river, very few pure Hottentots are in existence now, and every successive generation sees the number become smaller.

CHAPTER II.

DESCRIPTION OF THE BANTU TRIBES OF SOUTH AFRICA.

OBSERVATIONS made during the sixteenth century by Portuguese missionaries and travellers in South Africa throw much light upon the origin of several customs which to more recent observers of Bantu habits have always been obscure. With the Hottentots or Bushmen the Portuguese rarely came in contact, and of these people they give no information of any value. But with sections of the Bantu they lived in as close intimacy as Dutchmen or Englishmen have ever done, they learned the language of those people, studied their customs, and several of the best informed recorded what they observed. They tell of no golden age of peace and happiness disturbed by the intrusion of white men, but of almost constant strife and cruelty and misery. From them we learn that long before the time of Tshaka despots as clever and as ruthless as he spread desolation over wide tracts of land, that cannibalism as practised in the Lesuto and in Natal during the early years of the nineteenth century was no new custom with sections of the Bantu race. Much besides can be learned from their writings, so that any description of the black tribes south of the Zambesi published in English ten years ago can now be considerably amplified.

South of Cape Negro, the western coast of Africa, being without harbours until Walfish Bay is reached, was never examined with any care by the Portuguese. It is therefore impossible to state with any pretension to accuracy how far the Hottentot race extended along that shore at the beginning of the sixteenth century, or where it was in contact with the widely dissimilar black people of the north. All that can be

said with certainty is that the border line was some distance north of Walfish Bay, and that in the territory now known as Damaraland at some previous period a desperate struggle had taken place between the two peoples, in which at least one black tribe had been conquered and reduced to the lowest state of servitude by the Hottentots. But what became of the conquerors is a mystery that cannot be solved by any evidence now in being. They may have been exterminated, or they may have been driven south, by some powerful Bantu ruler. In tradition they are not known, but their existence at a remote period so far north is certain, as they stamped their language and some of their strangest customs upon the people whom they subjugated there.

On the eastern coast the dividing line between the two races was not far south of the present colony of Natal, fifty years later it was the Umzimvubu river.

In the centre of the country it is most unlikely that the black tribes had then reached the Vaal river, but here there is no other evidence than tradition of a migratory movement from the north at some unknown period, and no native tradition that can be verified extends so far into the past.

It will thus be as close an approximation to the actual condition of things as it is now possible to arrive at, if it be said that north of a line drawn from a point about five and twenty or thirty miles above Walfish Bay on the Atlantic shore to the upper waters of the Vaal river, and thence curving to the mouth of the Umtamvuna, the country was occupied in the year 1500 by the swarthy race now termed Bantu. A few Bushmen were intermixed with them in the wildest parts, but not a Hottentot lived north of that line.

These black people, together with their kindred who possessed a vast extent of Africa north of the Zambesi, are now usually termed the Bantu, in accordance with a proposal of the late Dr. Bleek. They had no word except tribal names to distinguish themselves from other races, *ntu** in their language

* In the dialect of the Tembu, Pondo, Zulu, and other coast tribes: *um-ntu* a person, plural *aba-ntu* people; diminutive *um-ntwana* a child, plural *aba-*

meaning a human being or person of any colour or country; but ethnologists felt the want of a specific designation for them, and adopted this as a convenient one. In the division of mankind thus named are included all those Africans who use a language which is inflected principally by means of prefixes, and which in the construction of sentences follows certain rules depending upon harmony of sound.*

Tribes occupying for many generations the greater portion of a country of such extent as Africa south of the Zambesi, and not having much intercourse with each other, naturally developed differences, and there were circumstances connected with the Bantu which increased the tendency towards variation. First there was the *hlonipa* custom, by which women were obliged constantly to invent new words, so that each dialect underwent gradual dissimilar changes. Next, and more important still, was an influx of Asiatics at some remote time, who mixed their blood with that of the people on the eastern side of the country, and brought about great improvements in their mental condition.

In a general description, such as this, it will be sufficient to classify the tribes in three groups, though it should be remembered that there are many trifling differences between the various branches of each of these. In the first group can be placed the tribes along the eastern coast south of the Sabi river, and those which in recent times have made their way from that

ntwana children; abstract derivative *ubu-ntu* the qualities of human beings, diminutive *ubu-ntwana* the qualities of children. In the Herero dialect: *omu-ndu* a person, plural *ova-ndu* people. In the dialect of the Basuto: *mo-tho* a person, plural *ba-tho* persons. The pronunciation, however, is nearly the same, the *h* in *batho* being sounded only as an aspirate, and the *o* as *oo*, *baat-hoo*.

* This definition is of course only a general one, and must be subject to exceptions, because races cannot be grouped by means of language alone. Thus the people called Berg Damaras, who have already been referred to and who live in the tract of country along the western coast north of Walfish Bay, are Bantu by blood, though they speak a Hottentot dialect, and resemble Bushmen in their habits. After their subjugation in remote times, they were forced to adopt the language of their conquerors. This may also have been the case with tribes in other parts of the continent.

part of the country into the highlands of the interior. The best known of these are the Amaxosa, the Abatembu, the Amampondo, the Amabaca, the Abambo (now broken into numerous fragments), the Amazulu, the Amaswazi, the Amatonga, the Magwamba, the Matshangana, and the Matabele. This group can be termed the coast tribes, though some members of it are now far from the sea.

The second group can include the tribes that at the beginning of the nineteenth century occupied the great interior plain and came down to the ocean between the Zambesi and Sabi rivers. It will include among many others the Batlapin, the Batlaro, the Barolong, the Bahurutsi, the Bangwaketsi, the Bakwena, the Bamangwato, all the sections of the Makalanga, and the whole of the Basuto, north and south. This group can be termed the interior tribes.

The third will comprise all the Bantu living between the Kalahari and the Atlantic ocean, such as the Ovaherero, the Ovampo, and others. These have no mixture of Asiatic blood. They are blacker in colour, coarser in appearance, and duller in intellect than the others, if an average is taken. The dialects spoken by them are also more primitive. This group has only recently come into contact with Europeans, and has taken no part in South African history. The feuds between its different members, if they could be accurately traced, would be of no interest, and no lessons could be drawn from them. It will be sufficient therefore to say of these western tribes that their language, religion, laws, mode of living, and customs generally were similar to those of their kindred of the interior and the eastern coast, but were in many respects lower in order.

The individuals who composed the first and second named groups varied in colour from deep bronze to black. Some had features of the lowest negro type: thick projecting lips, broad flat noses, and narrow foreheads; while others had prominent and in rare instances even aquiline noses, well developed foreheads, and lips but little thicker than those of Europeans. Among the eastern tribes these extremes could sometimes be noticed in the same family, but the great majority of the people were of a type

higher than a mean between the two. They were of mixed blood, and the branches of the ancestral stock differed considerably, as one was African and the other Asiatic.

Those who occupied the land along the south-eastern coast were in general large without being corpulent, strong, muscular, erect in bearing, and with all their limbs in perfect symmetry. Many of them were haughty in demeanour, and possessed a large amount of vanity. The men were usually handsomer than the women, owing to the girls being often stunted in growth and hardened in limb by carrying burdens on their heads and toiling in gardens at an early age. The people of the interior were in general somewhat smaller than those of the coast, though they were far from being diminutive specimens of the human race.

Though at times the Bantu presented the appearance of a peaceable, good-natured, indolent people, they were subject to outbursts of great excitement, when the most savage passions had free play. The man who spent a great part of his life gossiping in idleness, not knowing what it was to toil for bread, was hardly recognisable when, plumed and adorned with military trappings, he had worked himself into frenzy with the war dance. The period of excitement was, however, short. In the same way their outbursts of grief were violent, but were soon succeeded by cheerfulness.

They were subject to few diseases, and were capable of undergoing without harm privations and sufferings which the hardiest Europeans would have sunk under. Occasionally there were seasons of famine caused by prolonged drought, when whole tribes were reduced to exist upon nothing else than wild roots, bulbs, mimosa gum, and whatever else unaided nature provided. At such times they became emaciated, but as long as they could procure even the most wretched food they did not actually die, as white people would have done under similar circumstances. Nor did pestilence follow want of sustenance to the same extent as with us.

One cause of their being a strong healthy people was that no weak or deformed children were allowed to live long. There was no law which required an end to be put to the existence of such

infants, but it always happened that they died when very young, and public opinion was opposed to any inquiry into the mode of their death. Every one, even the parents, believed that it was better they should not live, and so they perished from neglect. But owing to the prevalence of this custom in preceding generations, the number of weaklings born was very small indeed. For some reason an exception was occasionally made in the case of albinos, who, though regarded as monstrosities, were not always destroyed in childhood. These hideous individuals, with features like others of their race, were of a pale sickly colour, and had weak pinkish eyes and hair almost white. Very few, however, were to be seen in any tribe, and in some none at all.

Under natural conditions the Bantu were a longer-lived people than Europeans. The friar Dos Santos found several women at Sofala who perfectly remembered events that had taken place eighty years before, and modern observers in other parts of the country have noticed the same circumstance. A man of this race placed beside a white colonist of the same age invariably looks the younger of the two, and in any tribe individuals can be found with personal knowledge extending over the ordinary span of life in Europe or America. They were probably the most prolific people on the face of the earth. All the females were married at an early age, very few women were childless, and in most of the tribes provision was even made by custom for widows to add to the families of their dead husbands. In some parts the brothers of the deceased took them, in others male companions were selected for them by their late husband's friends, in each case the children born thereafter being regarded as those of the dead man.

The language spoken by the Bantu was of a high order, subject to strict grammatical rules, and adequate for the expression of any ideas whatever. Its construction, however, was very different from that of the languages of Europe. It was broken up into many dialects, so that individuals from the western coast, from the interior, and from the eastern coast could not understand each other, though the great majority of the words used by all

were formed from the same roots. In the south-eastern dialects the English sound of the letter *r* was wanting, while in some of the others the sound of our *l* was never heard. In all there were combinations of consonants which it was very difficult for strangers of mature years to master.

There were clicks in only a few dialects of the language spoken by the Bantu family. These were derived in the south from Hottentot, and elsewhere probably from Bushman sources. They were introduced by females who were spared when the hordes to which they belonged were conquered, as is evident not only from tradition, but from the words in which they occur being chiefly those pertaining to the occupations of women. There is this peculiarity in the language, that some of the dialects spoken on the coasts of lower Guinea and the Indian ocean bear a closer resemblance to each other than to those between them. Tribes from one of these coasts seem to have been scattered and forced across the continent by violent convulsions in some long-forgotten time.

The form of government varied from that of a pure despotism, established by a successful military ruler, to a patriarchal system of a simple order. In the former everything centred in the person of one individual, at whose word the lives of any of his subjects were instantly sacrificed, who was the owner of all the property of the tribe, and who appointed officials at his pleasure. He was served by attendants in the most abject attitudes, could only be approached by a subject unarmed and crouching, and arrogated to himself a form of address due to a deity. He was an absolute ruler in every respect, and by his will alone his subjects were guided, though to retain such power for any length of time it was necessary for him not to counteract any strong desire of the warriors of his tribe. This purely despotic form of government was rarely found among the people of the interior, who were in general more peaceably disposed than those of the coast. It ended as a rule when a man of feeble intellect succeeded the one who established it.

The more common system, the one indeed that may be termed normal except when interfered with by a chief possessing great

military genius, was of a milder character. Under it a tribe was composed of a number of sections which may be termed clans, each under its own chief, but all acknowledging the supreme authority of one particular individual. Sometimes the heads of the clans were members of the family of the paramount chief, more or less distantly connected with him by blood, in which case the tribe was a compact body, every individual in it having a common interest with every other; but it often happened that clans broken in war, though retaining their own chiefs, were adopted as vassals by a powerful ruler, and in these cases the cohesion of the different sections, owing to the object of their worship being different, to jealousy, and to rival views, was much less firm.

Among the interior tribes, owing to the misconduct or incompetency of individual chiefs, this system sometimes broke down, when a condition of greater freedom resulted. Here the common people acquired sufficient power to make their wishes respected to some extent, and nothing of importance was undertaken without a general assembly of the men of the tribe being first held, when each one was at liberty to express his views. But even in these cases the opinion of a member of the ruling family was regarded as of vastly greater weight than that of a commoner. Merit was of small account against privilege of blood in the estimation of any branch of the Bantu race.

Among the tribes under the normal system of government the rule of the paramount chief in times of peace was hardly felt beyond his own kraal. Each clan possessed all the machinery of administration, and in general it was only in cases of serious quarrels between them or of appeals from judicial decisions that the tribal head used his authority. In war, however, he issued commands to all, and on important occasions he summoned the minor chiefs to aid him with advice.

The members of the ruling families, even to the most distant branches, were of aristocratic rank, and enjoyed many privileges. Their persons were inviolable, and an indignity offered to one of them was considered a crime of the gravest nature. Even the customs of the people were set aside in favour of the chiefs of

highest rank. A common man of the coast tribes, for instance, could not marry certain relatives by blood, no matter how distant, but a great chief could, though connections nearer than fourth or fifth cousins were very rare. Such a marriage was strictly forbidden to a commoner, but was allowed in the chief's case, in order to obtain a woman of suitable birth to be the mother of the heir in the great line.

Portuguese writers relate that the principal chiefs in the territory between the Sabi and Zambesi rivers took their own sisters and daughters as their wives of highest rank, but perhaps this statement arose from their attaching the European meaning to the words sister and daughter, which when used by people of the Bantu race applied equally to cousins and nieces on the father's side. No marriages with sisters or daughters in the European sense is permitted at the present day, but with cousins—sisters in the Bantu sense—they are common among the interior tribes.*

With regard to the common people, the theory of the universal

* The following words in the Xosa dialect will further illustrate the difference between European and Bantu ideas as to relationship. *Bawo* is the word used in addressing father, father's brother, or father's half-brother. Little children say *Tata*. But there are three different words for father, according as a person is speaking of his own father or uncle, of the father or uncle of the person he is speaking to, or of the father or uncle of the person he is speaking of. Speaking of my father, *bawo* is the word used; of your father, *uyihlo*; of his father, *uyise*. *Ma* is the word used in addressing mother, any wife of father, or the sister of any of these. The one we should term mother can only be distinguished from the others, when speaking of her, by describing her as *uma wam kanye*, i.e. my real mother; or *uma ondizalayo*, i.e. the mother who bore me. Speaking of my mother, *ma* is the word used; of your mother, *unyoko*; of his or her mother, *umina*. *Malume* is the brother of any one called mother. A paternal aunt is addressed as *dadebobawo*, i.e. sister of my father, showing a distinction between relatives on the paternal and maternal side. *Mnakwetu* is the word used by females in addressing a brother, half-brother, or male cousin. Males when addressing any of these relations older than themselves, use the word *mkuluwa*; and when addressing one younger than themselves, say *mninawe*. A sister and a female cousin are alike termed *odade wetu*, our sister—the pronoun being always used in the plural form;—though sometimes the word *mza*, an abbreviation of *umzalwana*, i.e. of our family, is applied to a cousin on the mother's side by females older than the one addressed. *Mtakama* is an endearing form of expression, meaning child of my mother.

Bantu law was that they were the property of the rulers, consequently an offence against any of their persons was atoned for by a fine to the chief. Murder and assaults were punished in this manner. When a man died, his nearest relative was required to report the circumstance to the head of the clan, and to take a present of some kind with him as consolation for the loss sustained.

But while the government of all the tribes was thus in theory despotic, the power of the chiefs in those which were not under military rule was usually more or less restrained. In each clan there was a body of councillors—commonly hereditary—whose advice could not always be disregarded. A great deal depended upon the personal character of the chief. If he was a man of resolute will, the councillors were powerless; if he was weak they possessed not only influence, but often real authority. Then there was a custom that a fugitive from one clan was entitled to protection by the chief of another with which he took refuge, so that an arbitrary or unpopular ruler was in constant danger of losing his followers. This custom was an effectual check upon gross and unrestrained tyranny.

The law of succession to the government favoured the formation of new tribes. The first wives of a paramount chief were usually the daughters of some of his father's principal retainers; but as he grew older and increased in power his alliance was courted by great families, and thus it generally happened that his consort of highest rank was taken when he was of advanced age. Usually she was the daughter of a neighbouring ruler and was selected for him by the councillors of the tribe, who provided the cattle required by her relatives. She was termed the great wife, and her eldest son was the principal heir.

Another of his wives was invested at an earlier period of his life, by the advice of his councillors and friends, with the title of wife of the right hand, and to her eldest son some of his father's retainers were given, with whom he formed a new clan. The government of this was entrusted to him as soon as he was full grown, so that while his brother was still a child he had opportunities of increasing his power. If he was the abler ruler of the

two, a quarrel between them arose almost to a certainty as soon as the great heir reached manhood and was also invested with a separate command. If peace was maintained, upon the death of his father the son of the right hand acknowledged his brother as superior in rank, but neither paid him tribute nor admitted his right to interfere in the internal government of the new clan.

In some of the tribes three sons of every chief divided their father's adherents among them. In the latter case the third heir was termed the representative of the ancients or the son of the left hand.

In this manner new tribes, entirely independent of the old ones from which they sprang, were frequently formed. This was especially the case when the adjacent territory was thinly occupied by a weak people like the Hottentots, affording means for the ruler of lower rank without difficulty to remove to a distance from his brother. The disintegrating process was to some extent checked by frequent tribal wars and feuds, which forced chiefs of the same family to make common cause with each other, but whenever there was comparative peace it was in active operation, and so a steady and rapid expansion of the Bantu race towards the south was effected.

With the limitations that have been mentioned, in the life of the people the chief was everything, his wishes were the guide of their conduct, his orders were implicitly obeyed, the best of all they had was at his disposal. To every one else they could tell the grossest falsehoods without disgrace, but to him they told the simple truth, and that in language which could not bear two meanings. They could not even partake of the crops in their own gardens until he gave them leave to do so. In this case, when the millet was ripe the chief appointed a day for a general assembly of the people at his residence, that was known as the great place; he then went through certain rites, among which was the offering of a small quantity of the fresh grain to the spirits of his ancestors, either by laying it on their graves or by casting it into a stream, after which ceremony he gave the people permission to gather and eat.

Every people has its own standard of virtue, which if it does

not live up to, it at least respects. The Bantu had theirs, which consisted in fidelity to the chief. A man might be a thorough scoundrel according to European ideas, cruel, lascivious, intemperate, mean: all this mattered nothing if he was devoted to his chief, in which case in the estimation of his tribe he was virtuous. There was a reason for this, as will presently be seen.

The most solemn oath that a man could take was by either some great legendary ruler or the one then living, though he did not regard even that as binding if he believed that by speaking falsely the interest of the chief would be advanced. Portuguese writers state that the people near the Zambesi swore by *Mambo*, which was rather one of the titles of the head of a great tribe than his proper name, but the individual or his line of ancestors was meant. At present the form of oath varies slightly in different places, the most common expression being I call to witness or I point to, as *Ki supa ka Makatshane*, the usual oath of a Mosuto, I point to Makatshane.

The amount of taxes paid by the people for the maintenance of government was not fixed, as it is in European states. The ordinary revenue of a chief was derived from confiscations of property, fines, and presents, besides which his gardens, that were usually large, were cultivated by the labour of his people. The right of the ruler to the personal service of his subjects was everywhere recognised, and it extended even to his requiring them to serve others for his benefit. The Portuguese engaged carriers from a chief, who took a considerable portion of their earnings, just as the tribal heads at present send their young men to a distance to work for them. Men who would not think of assisting in the cultivation of their own gardens went willingly, when called upon to do so, to labour in those of their chief. The breast of every animal killed, which was regarded as the choicest meat, was sent to him as his right, and certain furs were his alone. When he felt so disposed, he made a tour through his tribe, when each kraal visited provided food for him and his attendants, and if he was in need, made him a present of cattle. The oxen, often from fifty to a hundred, needed to procure his

principal wife—who was to be the mother of the future ruler—were contributed by his retainers.

In some of the tribes the chief might be said to be the owner of everything. Cattle taken in war were his property, and though the cows were distributed among the people, who had the use of the milk, he could demand their restoration at any time. All trade with strangers passed through his hands, and he kept as much of the gains as he chose. Though this system was confined to the military tribes, even in those less highly organised it was usual for the chiefs to exact heavy dues upon commercial transactions between their subjects and others. When, for instance, the first fairs were established by the British authorities on the Xosa border, the chiefs fixed the quantity of beads or other merchandise to be received for every ox or tusk of ivory, and commonly took about half for themselves, without the people raising any objection.

The charges upon the government, except in the case of the military tribes, were limited to the cost of entertainment of attendants and visitors, and of presents to favourites or for services performed. There were no salaries to be paid, and no public works to be provided for. In all the country from the Zambesi to the southern coast there was not so much as a road, nothing better than a footpath, which, though leading towards a fixed point, wound round every obstacle in the way, great or small, for no one cared to remove even a puny boulder to obtain a more direct line. Many of these footpaths were worn deep by constant use for years, but they were never repaired. The simplest bridge over a stream was unknown, nor was there any other public work, if barricades of stones in the approaches to hill tops are excepted.

The religion of the Bantu was based upon the supposition of the existence of spirits that could interfere with the affairs of this world. These spirits were those of their ancestors and their deceased chiefs, the greatest of whom had control over lightning. When the spirits became offended or hungry they sent a plague or disaster until sacrifices were offered and their wrath or hunger was appeased. The head of a family of commoners on such an

occasion killed an animal, and all ate of the meat, as the hungry ghost was supposed to be satisfied with the smell. In case of the chief or the community at large being affected, the sacrifice was performed with much ceremony by the tribal priest, an individual of great influence, who had as other duties to ward off from the ruler the malevolent attacks of wizards and to prepare charms or administer medicine that would make the warriors who conducted themselves properly invulnerable in battle.

An instance may be given to illustrate the operation of this religion. Upon the death of Gwanya, a chief of great celebrity in the Pandomisi tribe, he was buried in a deep pool of the Tina river. The body was fastened to a log of wood, which was sunk in the water and then covered with stones. The sixth in the direct line of descent from this chief, Umhlonhlo by name, to save himself from destruction by an enemy became a British subject at his own request, but in October 1880 treacherously murdered three English officials, and went into rebellion, which resulted in his being obliged afterwards to take shelter in Basutoland. In 1891 one of Umhlonhlo's sons ventured into the district where his father had lived, and there committed an assault, for which he was arrested and sent before a colonial court to be tried. It was a time of intense heat and severe drought, which the tribe declared were caused by the spirit of Gwanya, who in this manner was expressing displeasure at the treatment accorded to his descendant. As a peace-offering therefore, cattle were killed on the banks of the pool containing his grave, and the flesh was thrown into the water, together with new dishes full of beer. The prisoner was sentenced to pay a fine, which was at once collected by the people for him. A few days later rain fell in copious showers, which of course confirmed the belief of the tribe that what was right had been done, and that the spirit of Gwanya was appeased.

The Bantu had no idea of reward or punishment in a world to come for acts committed in this life, and thus there was no other restraint of religion upon their actions than was connected with loyalty to their chiefs dead and living. Except when compelled by circumstances to do so, they thought as little as possible of

their own after fate, and seldom allowed reflection of any kind to disturb them.

A belief in the existence of spirits would seem to have as its consequence a belief in some special place where they resided, but the Bantu power of reasoning in such matters did not extend so far. Their minds in this respect were like those of little children, who are content to credit marvellous things told to them, without attempting to investigate any of the particulars. It is only since European ideas have been disseminated among them that such a question has arisen, and that one has said the spirits resided in the sky, another that their place of abode was a cavern under the earth. They acted as if the ghosts of the dead remained at or near their habitations when in life, and they were constantly fearful of meeting them at night. In all parts of the country there were localities, usually wild or secluded glens, which had the reputation of being haunted, and where no one would venture to appear alone after dusk. This might be said, however, of almost every part of Europe as well, so that in it the Bantu did not differ from the most highly civilised section of mankind.

No man of this race, upon being told of the existence of a single supreme God, ever denies the assertion, and among many of the tribes there is even a name for such a Being, as, for instance, the word Umkulunkulu, the Great Great One, used by the Hlubi and others. From this it has been assumed by some investigators that the Bantu are really monotheists, and that the spirits of their ancestors are regarded merely as mediators or intercessors. But such a conclusion is incorrect. The Great Great One was once a man, they all assert, and before our conception of a deity became known to them, he was the most powerful of the ancient chiefs, to whom tradition assigned supernatural knowledge and skill.

When a person was killed by lightning no lamentation was made, as it would have been considered rebellion to mourn for one whom the great chief had sent for. In cases of death within a kraal the relatives and friends of the deceased often exhibited the most passionate symptoms of grief, which, how-

ever, seldom lasted long, though they generally shaved their heads as a sign of mourning. There was an idea that something connected with death attached to the personal effects of the deceased, on which account whatever had belonged to him that could not be placed in the grave, his clothing, mats, head rest, &c., was destroyed by fire. The hut in which he had lived was also burned, and no other was allowed to be built on the spot. If he had been the chief, the whole kraal was removed to another site. Those who touched the corpse or any of the dead man's effects were obliged to go through certain ceremonies, and then to bathe in running water before they could associate again with their companions. Except in cases of persons of rank, however, very few deaths occurred within kraals. As soon as it was seen that any one's end was near, the invalid was carried to a distance and left to die alone, in order to avert the danger of the presence of the dreaded something that could not be explained.

If it happened that a common person died within a kraal, the corpse was dragged to a distance, and there left to be devoured by beasts of prey; but chiefs and great men were interred with much ceremony. A grave was dug, in which the body was placed in a sitting posture, and by it were laid the weapons of war and ornaments used in life. When the grave was closed, such expressions as these were used: Remember us from the place where you are, you have gone to a high abode, cause us to prosper. To prevent desecration of any kind, watchers were then appointed to guard the grave, who for many months never left its neighbourhood. In some instances it was enclosed with a fence large enough to form a fold, within which selected oxen were confined at night. These cattle were thenceforward regarded as sacred, were well cared for, and allowed to die a natural death. The watchers of the grave also were privileged men ever afterwards.

Before the interment of the paramount chief of a powerful tribe, especially of a great military ruler, a number of his attendants were killed, and their bodies were placed around his in the grave in such a way as to keep it from contact with the

earth. The object was to provide him with servants in the spirit world. His principal wives either took poison voluntarily or were killed, to serve him as companions. If he had a favourite dog, ox, or other animal, that was also slaughtered, to give him pleasure. It does not follow that such animals were regarded as immortal, but there was something unexplainable connected with them that the dead chief could enjoy, just as there was with his assagais and his metal bracelets. Afterwards, especially when drought occurred or any disaster overtook the people, sacrifices were offered at the grave, and prayers were made to him for assistance. When a number of chiefs had thus been interred, a tacit selection was made of the one who had been the wisest and most powerful in his day, and the others were neglected and gradually forgotten except by the antiquaries who preserved their names.

The custom of slaughtering wives and attendants upon the death of a great chief was not observed by the less important tribes, nor upon the death of mere chiefs of clans or of other individuals of position; but a practice carried out to the present day shows that it must at one time have been general. When a man of what may be termed aristocratic rank died his widows betook themselves to forests or lonely places, where they lived in seclusion as best they could for a month or longer, according to the time of mourning customary among their people. During this period no one even spoke to them, and when, as sometimes—but not always—happened, they were supplied with food, it was done by leaving a little millet in a place near their haunts where they would probably find it. Death from exposure and starvation was frequently the result of this custom. At the end of the time of mourning the emaciated creatures returned to their kraals, when ceremonies of purification were observed, their clothing and ornaments were burned, and their relatives supplied them with the new articles that they needed. This method of mourning must have been developed from the practice of slaughtering such wives of a man of rank as could not make their escape when he died, in order that they might accompany him to the land of spirits.

The tribe adjoining the Hottentot border on the south-east had a dim belief in the existence of a powerful being, whom they termed Qamata, and to whom they sometimes prayed, though they never offered sacrifices to him. In a time of great danger one of them would exclaim: "O Qamata help me," and when the danger was over he would attribute his deliverance to the same being. But of Qamata nothing more was known than that he was high and mighty, and that though at times he helped individuals, in general he did not interfere with the destinies of men. Recent investigations have shown that this belief did not extend far among the Bantu tribes, and it is now supposed to have been acquired from the Hottentots. Not that the Hottentots venerated a deity thus designated, but that a knowledge of some other object of worship than their own ancestral shades having been obtained through Hottentot females whom they took to themselves, this name was given to the unknown divinity.

The Bantu believed that the spirits of the dead visited their friends and descendants in the form of animals. Each tribe regarded some particular animal as the one selected by the ghosts of its kindred, and therefore looked upon it as sacred. The lion was thus held in veneration by one tribe, the crocodile by another, the python by a third, the bluebuck by a fourth, and so on. When a division of a tribe took place, each section retained the same ancestral animal, and thus a simple method is afforded of ascertaining the wide dispersion of various communities of former times. For instance, at the present day a species of snake is held by people as far south as the mouth of the Fish river and by others near the Zambesi to be the form in which their dead appear.

This belief caused even such destructive animals as the lion and the crocodile to be protected from harm in certain parts of the country. It was not indeed believed that every lion or every crocodile was a disguised spirit, but then any one might be, and so none were molested unless under peculiar circumstances, when it was clearly apparent that the animal was an aggressor and therefore not related to the tribe. Even then, if it could be

driven away it was not killed. A Xosa of the present time will leave his hut if an ancestral snake enters it, permitting the reptile to keep possession, and will shudder at the thought of any one hurting it. The animal thus respected by one tribe was, however, disregarded and killed without scruple by all others.

The great majority of the people of the interior have now lost the ancient belief, but they still hold in veneration the animal that their ancestors regarded as a possible embodied spirit. Most of them take their tribal titles from it, thus the Bakwena are the crocodiles, the Bataung the lions, the Baphuti the little blue antelopes. Each terms the animal whose name it bears its *siboko*, and not only will not kill it or eat its flesh, but will not touch its skin or come in contact with it in any way if that can be avoided. When one stranger meets another and desires to know something about him, he asks "to what do you dance?" and the name of the animal is given in reply. Dos Santos, a Portuguese writer who had excellent opportunities of observation, states that on certain occasions, which must have been frequent, men imitated the actions of their *siboko*; but that custom has now almost died out, at least among the southern tribes.

The people along the south-eastern coast, though separated into distinct communities absolutely independent of each other from a time as far back as their tradition reaches, are of common tribal origin. They all regard the same species of snake as the form in which their ancestral shades appear. Further, their tribal titles, with few exceptions, are derived from the chief who left the parent stock, thus the Amahlubi are the people of Hlubi, the Abatembu the people of Tembu, the Amaxosa the people of Xosa, Hlubi, Tembu, and Xosa being the chiefs under whom they acquired independence. The exceptions are derived from some peculiarity of the people, but in these cases the titles were originally nicknames given by strangers and afterwards adopted by the tribes themselves.

Nearer than the spirits of deceased chiefs or of their own ancestors was a whole host of hobgoblins, water sprites, and malevolent demons, who met the Bantu turn which way they would. There was no beautiful fairyland for them, for all the

beings who haunted the mountains, the plains, and the rivers were ministers of evil. The most feared of these was a large bird that made love to women and incited those who returned its affection to cause the death of those who did not, and a little mischievous imp who was also amorously inclined. Many instances could be gathered from the records of magistrates' courts in recent years of demented women having admitted their acquaintance with these fabulous creatures, as well as of whole communities living in terror of them.

The water spirits were believed to be addicted to claiming human victims, though they were sometimes willing to accept an ox as a ransom. How this belief works practically may be illustrated by facts which have come under the writer's cognizance.

In the summer of 1875 a party of girls went to bathe in a tributary of the Keiskama river. There was a deep hole in the stream, into which one of them got, and she was drowned. The others ran home as fast as they could, and there related that their companion had been lured from their side by a spirit calling her. She was with them, they said, in a shallow part, when suddenly she stood upright and exclaimed "It is calling." She then walked straight into the deep place, and would not allow any of them to touch her. One of them heard her saying "Go and tell my father and my mother that it took me." Upon this, the father collected his cattle as quickly as possible, and went to the stream. The animals were driven into the water, and the man stood on the bank imploring the spirit to take the choicest of them and restore his daughter.

On another occasion a man was trying to cross one of the fords of a river when it was in flood. He was carried away by the current, but succeeded in getting safely to land some quarter of a mile farther down. Eight or ten stout fellows saw him carried off his feet, but not one made the slightest effort to help him. On the contrary, they all rushed away frantically, shouting to the herd boys on the hill sides to drive down the cattle. The escape of the man from the power of the spirit was afterwards attributed to his being in possession of a powerful charm.

Besides these spirits, according to the belief of the Bantu, there are people living under the water, pretty much as those do who are in the upper air. They have houses and furniture, and even cattle, all of their domestic animals being, however, of a dark colour. They are wiser than other people, and from them the witchfinders are supposed to obtain the knowledge of their art. This is not a fancy of children, but the implicit belief of grown-up men and women at the present day. As an instance, in July 1881 a woman came to the writer of this chapter, who was then acting as magistrate of a district in the Cape Colony inhabited by Bantu, and asked for assistance. A child had died in her kraal, and the witchfinder had pointed her out as the person who had caused its death. Her husband was absent, and the result of her being *smelt out* was that no one would enter her hut, share food with her, or so much as speak to her. If she was in a path every one fled out of her way, and even her own children avoided her. Being under British jurisdiction she could not be otherwise punished, but such treatment as this would of itself, in course of time, have made her insane. She denied most emphatically having been concerned in the death of the child, though she did not doubt that some one had caused it by means of witchcraft. The witchfinder was sent for, and, as the matter was considered an important one, a larger number of people than usual appeared at the investigation. On putting the ordinary tests to the witchfinder he failed to meet them, and when he was compelled, reluctantly, to admit that he had never held converse with the people under the water, it was easy to convince the bystanders that he was only an impostor.

Of the origin of life or of the visible universe the Bantu never thought, nor had any one of them ever formed a theory upon the subject. There was indeed a story told in all the tribes of the cause of death, but it is in itself an apt illustration of their want of reasoning power in such matters. The chameleon, so the tale was told, was sent to say that men were to live for ever. After he had gone a long time the little lizard was sent to say that men were to die. The lizard, being fleet of foot, arrived first at his journey's end, and thus death was introduced. But in

whom the power lay of forming these decisions, and of sending the animals with the messages, they did not trouble themselves to inquire, nor did it strike them that the narrative was incomplete without this information until Europeans questioned them concerning it.

Some of the eastern Bantu had a legend that men and animals formerly existed in caverns in the bowels of the earth, but at length found their way to the surface through an opening in a marsh overgrown with reeds. They always pointed to the north as the direction in which this marsh lay. The Ovaherero on the western coast believe that human beings and every kind of animal sprang from a particular kind of large tree in their country, to which on that account they pay such respect that they will not even lop a twig from it, wherever it may be growing. For this reason it is now commonly called by the Europeans in the country the Damara mother tree, Damup, corrupted by the Dutch colonists into Damara, being the Hottentot name of the black people living north of Walfish Bay. But this belief is probably of Hottentot, not of Bantu origin, for the clans that hold it have strangely mixed up the worship of Heitsi-eibib with that of their own ancestral shades. This must have arisen from the predominance of the Hottentot race in remote times in the country now occupied by the Ovaherero.

Dos Santos states that the people of his time in the Zambezi basin observed certain fixed days as holy, and abstained from labour upon them; but this custom was certainly not universal, and very likely the friar was mistaken. At any rate modern observers in that part of the country as well as in the south have noticed that no days or seasons are considered more sacred than others, though there are times marked by particular events when it is considered unlucky to undertake any enterprise, and even movements in war are delayed on such occasions.

Still it must be observed that, though no days were considered holier than others, or were specially dedicated to religious observances, with the Bantu, as probably with all uncivilised people, the time of a new moon was one of special rejoicing. Next to the apparent course of the sun through the sky, the

changes of the moon are those which to every one are most striking. This is particularly so in a country like South Africa, where a moonlit evening, when the winds are lulled and the air is deliciously fresh and cool, is to Europeans the pleasantest part of the twenty-four hours, far more so to people who knew of no other artificial light than that of burning wood. It is no wonder therefore that the new moon was hailed with shouts of joy, that its praises were chanted in set words, and that among some of the tribes dances and other ceremonies took place in its honour. With all this, however, the moon was not regarded as a deity, nor was the evening of rejoicing considered more holy than any other. After the crops were gathered, many of the tribes were accustomed to offer special sacrifices to the spirits of their dead chiefs, though there was no fixed day in every year set apart for the purpose, and indeed they did not even know how to reckon time as we do. A chief who considered that his people, male or female, needed rest, might issue an order that no work was to be done on a particular day, but that did not cause it to be regarded as holy.

Each ruling family had an individual connected with it, one of whose duties can properly be described as that of a priest, for it was he who in times of calamity sacrificed cattle for the tribe to the spirits of the dead chiefs. Another of his duties was by means of charms and incantations to ward off evil influence of every kind from the reigning ruler. When a community was broken in war and compelled to become a vassal clan of some other tribe, it retained its priest until by time or circumstances a thorough incorporation took place. That was a process, however, not usually completed until several generations had passed away.

As a factor in the government of a Bantu tribe religion was more powerful than in any European state, for the fear of offending the spirits of the deceased chiefs, and so bringing evil upon themselves, kept the clans loyal to their head. He was the representative, the descendant in the great line, of those whose wrath they appeased by sacrifices. A tribe all of whose clans were governed by offshoots of the family of the paramount chief

was thus immensely stronger in war than one of equal size made up of clans thrown together by chance. In the one case the religious head was the same as the political, in the other they were separated.

The belief in witchcraft was deep-seated and universal. The theory was that certain evil-disposed persons obtained power from the demons to bewitch others, and so to cause sickness, death, or disaster of some kind. They were believed often to use snakes, baboons, and other animals as their messengers. They could only be discovered by individuals who went through a very severe novitiate, and to whom the necessary knowledge was imparted by people who lived under water. Undoubtedly some of the witchfinders were impostors; but many of them were really monomaniacs, and had the firmest conviction in their ability to do what they professed.

Occasionally a person believed that he had received revelations from the spirit world. If his statements were credited, his power at once became enormous, and his commands were implicitly obeyed. Crafty chiefs sometimes made use of such deranged beings for the purpose of exciting the people to war, or of inducing them to approve of measures which would otherwise have been unpopular.

There were individuals who professed to be able to make rain, and whose services were frequently called into use when any part of the country suffered from drought. If it happened soon afterwards that rain fell they received credit for it, and were amply rewarded, while if the drought continued they asserted that some unknown powerful wizard was working against them, a statement that was in most cases believed. Sometimes, however, the chief and people lost faith in them, when they were pronounced guilty of imposture, and were tied hand and foot and thrown over a precipice or into a stream.

There were also persons who were skilful in the use of herbs as remedies for diseases, and who were well acquainted with different kinds of poison. This knowledge was transmitted in certain families from father to son, and was kept profoundly secret from the mass of the people. Some of their medicines were

beyond doubt of great efficacy, such as those used for the cure of dysentery, for causing virulent sores to heal, and to counteract snake bites.* But with these, and classified as of equal value, they professed to have medicines that would cause love from a woman, favour from a chief, &c. The writer of this was once so fortunate as to come into possession of the whole stock in trade of a famous Xosa herbalist. Each article in it was afterwards submitted to different practitioners, under exceptionally favourable circumstances for eliciting information, when most of them were at once recognised and their uses pronounced. Some were cures for various diseases, one was a love philter, and one was a piece of wood which was to be burned and the smoke inhaled, when the person using it would find favour in the eyes of his superior. But there were several whose use no one would divulge, their properties being regarded as secrets upon the strictest maintenance of which the fortunes of the herbalist families depended. In every case, in addition to the medicine, charms were made use of, and the one was as much relied upon as the other by the people at large.

It often happened that the three offices of witchfinder, rain-maker, and herbalist were combined in the same person, but this was not always the case, and the occupations were distinct. When practising, these individuals attired themselves fantastically, being painted with various colours, and having the tails of wild animals suspended around them.

Charms were largely depended upon to preserve the wearers against accident or to produce good luck. They were merely bits of wood or bone, which were hung about the neck, and were

* A valuable pamphlet, in which the botanical, native, and colonial names, and the uses of a great many of these medicinal plants are given, was not long ago prepared and published by the late Andrew Smith, Esqre., M.A., for many years a teacher in the higher department of the Lovedale Missionary Institution, who expended a great deal of time and thought in the investigation of this subject. My friend the reverend Dr. W. A. Soga, a medical missionary with the Bomvanas in the district of Elliotdale, informed me a few years ago that a remedy for one form of cancer was certainly known to some herbalists of his acquaintance, but though he had long been endeavouring to acquire their secret, he had been unable to do so.

regarded just as lucky pennies and fortunate days are by some silly Europeans. But the belief was firm in charms and medicines which gave to an assagai the property of hitting the mark, to an individual the property of winning favour, and such like. The issue of warlike operations was divined by revolting cruelties practised on animals. At the commencement of hostilities, and often before an engagement, two bulls were selected to represent the opposing parties. These were then skinned alive, and success was foretold to the combatant represented by the one that lived longest. By some means, however, each band of warriors was made to believe that the result denoted victory to its side. While this was taking place pieces of flesh were cut from other living bulls, which the warriors devoured raw, in the supposition that by this means their courage in battle would be increased. Cruelty of so dreadful a kind shocked no heart among the spectators, for the Bantu in general were utterly indifferent to the sufferings of animals, except favourites such as a man's own race-ox or his pet dog.

The tribes of the interior were more superstitious than those of the coast, as they were guided in nearly all their actions by the position in which some pieces of bone or wood of the character of dice fell when they were cast on the ground. The largest made of wood were oblong tablets, about six inches in length, two inches in width, and five-eighths of an inch in thickness, but usually those of wood, and almost invariably those of bone, were smaller, the commonest being about two inches and a half long, an inch wide, and an eighth of an inch in thickness. On each tablet a different pattern was carved, and each had a signification different from the others. Sometimes instead of tablets pieces of bone or of ivory carved in various shapes were used, in the manufacture of which a great deal of patient labour was expended. The usual number employed was five, but more were sometimes found in a set. If an ox strayed the *daula* was thrown to ascertain in what direction it had gone, if a hunt was to take place it was consulted to indicate in what quarter game was most readily to be found, in short it was resorted to in every case of doubt. Each individual carried with him a set of these

mystic articles strung on a thong, to be used whenever required. This superstitious practice, just as it was described more than three hundred years ago by the friar Dos Santos, is still prevalent and firmly believed in.

With many of the tribes there was a custom upon the accession of a chief to kill the commoner with the largest head among the people, in order that his skull might be used by the priest as a receptacle for the charms against witchcraft employed in the protection of the ruler. Such a receptacle was regarded as requisite for that particular purpose. Only a generation ago a man was killed with this object by a section of the Xosa tribe that was not then under British rule, but that had been to some extent for many years under European influence. The writer has heard his grandchildren speak of the event without the slightest feeling of horror, with as much indifference, in fact, as if they were relating any ordinary occurrence.

CHAPTER III.

DESCRIPTION OF THE BANTU (*continued*).

THE Bantu had a system of common law and perfectly organised tribunals of justice, which, however, were sometimes set aside by the great military tribes. Their laws came down from a time to which even tradition did not reach, and those which related to ordinary matters were so well known to every member of the community that trials were mere investigations into statements and proofs of occurrences. When complicated cases arose, precedents were sought for, antiquaries were referred to, and celebrated jurists even in other tribes were consulted. If all these means of ascertaining the law failed, and the chief before whom the case was being tried was not a man of generally recognised ability, it often happened that no judgment was given, for fear of establishing a faulty precedent. From the decisions of the minor chiefs there was a right of appeal to the head of the tribe.

The law held every one accused of crime guilty, unless he could prove himself innocent. It made the head of a family responsible for the conduct of all its branches, the kraal collectively in the same manner for each resident in it, and the clan for each of its sub-divisions. Thus if the skin of a stolen ox was found in a kraal, or if the footmarks of the animal were traced to it, the whole of the residents were liable to be fined. There was no such thing as a man's professing ignorance of his neighbour's doings: the law required him to know all about them, or it made him suffer for neglecting a duty which it held he owed to the community. Every individual was not only in theory but in practice a policeman.

A lawsuit among these people was commonly attended by all the men of the kraal where it took place. Nothing was more congenial than to sit and listen to the efforts of the querists to elicit the truth, or for the ablest among them to assist in the investigation. The trial took place in the open air. The person charged with crime or the defendant in a civil suit underwent a rigorous examination, and anything like warning him against criminating himself was held to be perversion of justice.

The accuser or plaintiff or a friend prosecuted, and a friend of the individual on trial conducted the defence; the councillors, who acted as assessors, or any individual of recognised legal ability who happened to be present, put any questions they chose; and the mass of spectators observed the utmost silence and decorum. At the conclusion of the trial, the councillors expressed their opinions, and the chief then pronounced judgment.

There were only two modes of punishment, fines and death, except in cases where an individual was charged with having dealt in witchcraft, when torture, often of a horrible kind, was practised. In this class of trials every one was actuated by fear, and was in a state of strong excitement, so that the formalities required on other occasions were dispensed with. The whole clan was assembled and seated in a circle, the witchfinder, who was fantastically painted and attired, went through certain incantations; and when all were worked into a state of frenzy he pointed to some individual as the one who had by bewitchment caused death or sickness among the people, murrain among cattle, blight in crops, or some other disaster. The result to the person so pointed out was confiscation of property and torture, often causing death. The number of persons who perished on charges of dealing in witchcraft was very great. The victims were usually old women, men of property, persons of eccentric habits, or individuals obnoxious to the chief. Any person in advance of his fellows was specially liable to suspicion, so that progress of any kind towards what we should term higher civilisation was made exceedingly difficult by this belief.

No one except the chief was exempt, however, from being

charged with dealing in witchcraft. The cruelties practised upon the unfortunate individuals believed to be guilty were often horrible, but a single instance, which occurred in July 1892, will be sufficient to exemplify them. A wife of the Pondo chief Sigcawu being ill, a witchfinder was directed to point out the person who caused the malady. He declared that Ma Matiwane, sister of the Pandomisi chief Umhlonhlo and widow of Sigcawu's father, was the guilty person, and that she had a lizard and a mole as her servants in the evil work. By order of Sigcawu, a number of young men then seized Ma Matiwane, stripped her naked, fastened her wrists and ankles to pegs driven in the ground, and covered her with ants irritated by pouring water over them. She suffered this torture for a long time without confessing, so they loosed her, saying that her medicines were too strong for the ants. They then lashed her arms to a pole placed along her shoulders, and taking her by the feet and the ends of the pole, they held her over a fire. Under this torture she confessed that she was guilty, but as she could not produce the lizard and the mole, she was roasted again three times within two days. No European could have survived such a burning; but she was ultimately rescued by an agent of the Cape government, and recovered. This woman had taken care of Sigcawu after the death of his own mother, yet on the mere word of a witchfinder she was thus horribly tortured. And instances of this kind were common events in the olden times.

Frequently, when a great calamity had occurred, or the life of a chief was believed to be in danger, not only the individual pointed out by the witchfinder, but his or her whole family was exterminated, and even entire kraals were sometimes wiped out of existence on such occasions. So strong was the belief in witchcraft and in the power of witchfinders to detect those guilty of practising it that instances were not rare of persons accused admitting that the charge against them must be correct and that they ought to suffer death, because some evil emanation over which they had no control must have gone forth from their bodies and caused the disaster, though they had done nothing directly to produce it.

The Bantu were seen in the most favourable light at ordinary lawsuits before the chiefs and councillors, and in the most unfavourable light at trials for the discovery of wizards and witches. In the one case men were found conducting themselves with the strictest gravity and propriety, in the other case the same people were seen as a panic-stricken horde, deaf to all reason, and ready to perform most atrocious acts of cruelty, even upon persons who just previously were their companions.

The sentences pronounced in ordinary cases were often such as would have seemed unjust to Europeans, but that was because our standard of comparative crime is not the same as theirs, and because with us there is supposed to be no difference of punishment according to the rank of the criminal. With them the ruling families in all their branches had the privilege of doing many things with impunity that commoners were severely punished for. Bribery was not unknown, but in courts as open as theirs, and where there was the utmost freedom of enquiry, it could not be practised to any great extent. When a case was talked out, every one present was usually acquainted with its minutest details.

Among the northern tribes trial by ordeal was resorted to in cases where personal or circumstantial evidence was wanting, and in appeal from decisions of witchfinders. The form of ordeal varied. In some instances the accused person was required to lick or to pick up a piece of red hot iron, and if he was burnt he was condemned as guilty. In other cases he drank the poisonous juice of a certain herb, and if it had effect upon him he was doomed to immediate death. In others again he was forced to drink a huge basin of hot water mixed with a bitter emetic, and if he could not retain it the charge against him was regarded as proved. Yet so confident were innocent persons that no harm would come to them from the iron, the poison, or the emetic, that they accepted the ordeal with alacrity. Among the southern tribes this practice was not common, though it was well known.

The Bantu knew of no other periods in reckoning time than the day and the lunar month, and could describe events only as

happening before or after some remarkable occurrence, such as the death of a chief, a season of famine, or an unusually heavy flood. The rising of the Pleiades shortly after sunset was regarded as indicating the planting season. To this constellation, as well as to several of the prominent stars and planets, they gave expressive names. They formed no theories concerning the nature of the heavenly bodies and their motions, and were not given to thinking of such things. In later times, if questioned by a European, they might venture to remark that the sky was smoke which had risen from fires, but in such cases it would be evident that the effort to find a solution to a query of this kind was new to them.

They had no knowledge of letters or of any signs by which ideas could be expressed. There were old men who professed to be acquainted with the deeds of the past, and who imparted their knowledge to the young, but their accounts of distant times seldom corresponded in details. They touched very lightly upon defeats sustained by their own tribe, but dilated upon all its victories. In the traditions of each independent community a particular chief, usually the second or third in descent from the founder, was invariably represented as having conferred extraordinary benefits upon his people. He was the inventor of iron weapons, the one who decorated them with copper ornaments, and who taught them to use millet for food. Thus among the Barolong at the present day all this is attributed to Noto, son of Morolong; among the Amaxosa to Tshawe, great-grandson of Xosa; among the Abatetwa to Umyambosi, son of Umtetwa. Now it is absolutely certain that long before the time of Morolong, Xosa, and Umtetwa, who founded these modern tribes, iron, copper, and millet were in general use by all sections of the Bantu. But in praise of chiefs who probably gained some important victory, or under whose rule there was unusual prosperity, whatever the succeeding generations could think of as being great improvements was ascribed to their wisdom, and has been handed down as tribal history from one antiquary to another. Thus these narratives convey incorrect impressions, and little is beyond question except the genealogies

of the great chiefs, which have been carefully preserved for ten or twelve generations.

Their folklore was neither of a moral character, nor did it convey any useful lessons. The actors in it were animals which spoke as human beings, persons who were bewitched and compelled to appear as beasts, individuals with magical powers, fantastic creatures, imps, cannibals, young chiefs, girls, etc., etc. There was nothing that led to elevation of thought in any of these stories, though one idea, that might easily be mistaken on a first view for a good one, pervades many of them: the superiority of brain power to physical force. But on looking deeper it is found that brain power was always interpreted as low cunning; it was wiliness, not greatness of mind, that won in the strife against the stupid strong. Such an idea was in full accord with the life of the people, and it may have been on this account that the tales were so much liked. Where force was directed as mercilessly as it is among brutes, it was necessary for the weak to scheme against the strong. The little boy, who lived in constant terror of larger ones, the woman, who was the drudge, not the companion, of her husband, the petty clan, that felt the exactions of a powerful neighbour, all were obliged to scheme, and no people on earth ever learned the art of deception more thoroughly than the Bantu. Thus these traditional tales, which came down from a remote time,—as they were found with little variation among tribes that could have had no intercourse with each other for many centuries,—gave a large amount of pleasure to those among whom they passed current, though to European minds there was nothing amusing or interesting in them.

Many of the proverbs in common use, on the contrary, conveyed excellent practical lessons of prudence and wisdom. The following are a few of those collected by the writer when residing with the Xosas, and they might be extended to fill many pages:—

A brand burns him who stirs it up, equivalent to our English one Let sleeping dogs lie.

Like the marriage feast of Mapasa, used to denote anything unusually grand. The marriage festivities of one of the ancients,

Mapasa by name, are said to have been carried on for a whole year.

Misfortune of soup made of shanks and feet, applied to any person who never does well, but is always getting into trouble. The kind of soup spoken of is very lightly esteemed.

One fly does not provide for another, a saying of the industrious to the idle, meaning that each should work for himself as the flies do.

Bakuba is far away, no person ever reached it. Bakuba is an ideal country. This proverb is used as a warning against undue ambition, or as advice to be content with that which is within reach. It is equivalent to our English saying It is no use building castles in the air.

They have slaughtered at Kukwane, where much meat is obtainable. According to tradition, there was once a very rich chief who lived at Kukwane, and who entertained strangers in a more liberal manner than any who went before or who came after him. This proverb is used to such persons as ask too much from others, as if to say: It was only at Kukwane that such expectations were realised.

It is not every one who is a son of Gaika. Gaika was at the beginning of the nineteenth century the most powerful chief west of the Kei. This proverb signifies that all are not equally fortunate.

He has drunk the juice of the flower of the wild aloe. Said of a dull, sleepy person. This juice when drunk has a stupefying effect, and benumbs the limbs so as to make them powerless for a time.

The walls have come into collision, said of any dispute between persons of consequence.

A person who will not take advice gets knowledge when trouble overtakes him.

You have cast away your own for that which you are not sure of, equivalent to the English proverb A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.

He is a buck of an endless forest, a saying applied to a shiftless person, one who never continues long in any occupation.

You are lighting a fire in the wind, said to any one who favours strangers in preference to relatives, or to their disadvantage.

There is no beast that does not roar in its den, meaning that a man recognises no superior in his own establishment. Equivalent to Every cock crows on his own dunghill.

A dog of the wind, a saying applied to any one who has no settled plan of living.

I, the adhesive grass, will stick fast to you. This proverb is used as a warning to any one to avoid a bad habit or an unworthy companion that cannot easily be got rid of.

The sun never sets without fresh news.

They are people of experience who do not sleep at a strange place, said in praise of one who is smart in going a message, or who performs any duty at a distance quickly.

The land is dead, a saying which implies that war has commenced.

One does not become great by claiming greatness, used to incite any one to the performance of noble deeds. It means that a man's actions, not his talk and boasting, are what people judge of his greatness by.

It is the foot of a baboon, a saying denoting a treacherous person.

He has gone in pursuit of the (fabulous) birds of the sea, a saying applied to one whose ambitious aspirations are not likely to be realised.

You are creeping on your knees to the fireplace. Used as a warning to any one who is following a course that must lead to ruin. It is as if one said: You are like an infant crawling towards the fire circle in the middle of the hut, who is sure to get burnt.

It has stuck fast by one of the front legs. This saying is used when any one has committed himself to a matter of importance. An animal cannot extricate itself easily when fast by one of its front legs.

It dies and rises like the moon. Said of any question that springs up again after it is supposed to be settled.

There is no plant that comes into flower and does not wither. Descriptive of the life of man.

The crab has stuck fast between the stones at the entrance of its hole. Said of any one who is involved in difficulties of his own creation, or of one who raises an argument and is beaten in it.

To-morrow is also a day. Said to any one who is in undue haste or who is impatient in the execution of a task. It is the proverb most acted upon by men of the Bantu race.

Of poetry they had a fairly rich store, but there was nothing particularly grand in it. It was chanted by individual men on special occasions, and consisted chiefly of adulation of the chiefs, deeds of war, and actions of animals. Thus a favourite ox might have a chant in its praise. The war chants, in certain parts of which the whole of the men present joined, were certainly impressive, but those in ordinary use were monotonous and disagreeable to a European ear. All were distinguished by a note of sadness. These people, though their voices were rich and melodious, had no conception of such vocal music as we are accustomed to: they had neither rhymic hymn, nor song, nor glee. Their musical instruments were of the rudest kind, mostly calculated to make noise rather than melody, those in ordinary use being capable of producing only a monotonous thrumming sound. The best consisted merely of pieces of wood or iron for keys, with calabashes attached to them, arranged on stretched strings, and struck with a small round-headed cane, or of thin iron keys fastened over a gourd or hollow block of wood, and touched by the hand. Of these there were several kinds, but all were constructed on the same principle.

Every chief of highest rank in the military tribes was attended by individuals whose duty was to act as official praisers. These persons were attired in the most fantastic costumes, thus one might have his head and every part of his body covered with the skin of a lion, another with that of a leopard, and so on. On any appearance of the chief, they shouted in a kind of chant a poem in which greatness of every kind was attributed to him, using such terms as great elephant, great despoiler, great

ravisher, great conqueror, and great soothsayer. Very often at the same time drums were beaten and horns were sounded, making a din gratifying to the Bantu ear, but intolerable to that of a European. The chiefs of tribes in the ordinary condition had also their official praisers, who were, however, more modest in their words, and whose chants were seldom accompanied by such a deafening noise of discordant instruments.

The heads of the independent communities along the eastern coast from the Zambesi river to Kosi Bay had dynastic names, which they assumed upon succeeding to the chieftainship, and by which they were afterwards known, just as all the rulers of ancient Egypt were termed Pharaoh. Thus the paramount chiefs of the tribe that occupied the south-eastern shore of Delagoa Bay took the name Nyaka, those of the adjoining tribe to the westward Kapela, those of the tribe living along the lower course of the Limpopo river Manisa, and those of the great Makalanga tribe, that occupied the eastern part of what is now Rhodesia and the adjacent territory to the sea, Mnamatapa. Each of these dynastic names originally had a special signification, and was derived from some occurrence connected with the founder of the ruling family or one of the most distinguished of his descendants. The custom applied only to paramount chiefs. South of Kosi Bay dynastic names were not used, owing probably to the manner in which the tribes were formed and their recent origin.

The names given to children at birth were often changed at a later age, especially in the case of chiefs who performed any noteworthy act, or with a view to flattery, a custom that makes research into their history somewhat difficult. It frequently happened also that a chief was known to his own people by one name, and to neighbouring tribes by another very different. In our own day there are many instances of this custom. Thus a chief of a Barolong clan, Montsiwa as his own people call him, is termed Seyangkabo (meaning intruder in a bad sense) by some of his immediate neighbours, and Motshele oa Maaka (the fountain of lies) by others. Some of the names given to notable persons were very expressive, and of these also there are many

instances at present. Thus Sigcawu (the great spider), the paramount Xosa chief, was so named on account of his supposed cleverness, Dalindyebo (creator of wealth, from roots uku dala to create and indyebo riches), the paramount Tembu chief, on account of his having been born during an exceedingly abundant harvest, Ngonyama (the lion), a Gaika chief, on account of his personal bravery, Uzwinye (one word, from roots izwi a word and nye one), the reverend Mr. Hargreaves, on account of his constantly recommending peace. When a woman is married, her husband's parents give her a new name, by which she is known to his family afterwards. Upon the birth of her first child, whether son or daughter, she is usually called by every one else after the name given to the infant, Ma **, the mother of **.

When about fifteen or sixteen years of age boys in nearly all the tribes were circumcised. The rite was purely civil. By it a youth was enabled to emerge from the society of women and children, and was admitted to the privileges of manhood. Its performance was attended with many ceremonies, some of a harmless, others to European ideas of a criminal nature. At a certain period in every year, unless it was a time of calamity or the chief had a son not yet ready, all the youths of a clan who were old enough were circumcised. Thereafter for a couple of months or longer they lived by themselves, and were distinguished by wearing a peculiar head-dress and a girdle of long grass about the loins, besides having their bodies covered with white clay. During this period they had license to steal freely from their relatives, provided they could do so without being caught in the act. After returning to their homes, they were brought before the old men of the tribe, who lectured them upon the duties and responsibilities which they had taken upon themselves. Presents of cattle and weapons were afterwards made by their friends to give them a start in life, and they could then indulge in immorality without let or hindrance from their elders.

In case a scion of the ruling house was growing up, the performance of the rite of circumcision was generally allowed to stand over for a year or two, so that he might have a large number of companions. These were all supposed to be bound to

him by a very strong tie. In after years they were to be his councillors and attendants, and in case of danger were to form his bodyguard. In modern times no instance has been known of any one who was circumcised at the same time as a chief afterwards proving unfaithful to him, but numerous instances have come under the notice of Europeans where such persons have sacrificed their lives for him.

With some—if not all—of the interior tribes at the time of circumcision the youths were formed into guilds with passwords. The members of these guilds were bound never to give evidence against each other. The rites of initiation were kept as secret as possible, but certain horrible customs connected with them were known. One of these was the infusion of courage, intelligence, and other qualities. Whenever an enemy who had acted bravely was killed, his liver, which was considered the seat of intelligence, the skin of his forehead, which was considered the seat of perseverance, and other members, each of which was supposed to be the seat of some desirable quality, were cut from his body and baked to cinders. The ashes were preserved in the horn of a bull, and during the circumcision ceremonies were mixed with other ingredients into a kind of paste and administered by the tribal priest to the youths, the idea being that the qualities which they represented were communicated to those who swallowed them. This custom, together with that of using other parts of the remains of their enemies for bewitching purposes, led them to mutilate the bodies of all who fell into their hands in war, a practice which infuriated those whose friends were thus treated, and often provoked retaliation of a terrible kind.

Females who arrived at the age of puberty were introduced into the state of womanhood by peculiar ceremonies, which tended to extinguish virtuous feelings within them. Originally, however, among the coast tribes the very worst of the observances on these occasions was a test of discipline. The object of the education of the males was to make them capable of self-restraint. They were required to control themselves so that no trace of their emotions should appear on their faces, they were not to wince when undergoing the most severe punishment. In olden

times a further test was applied, which has now degenerated into the most abominable licentiousness. It will be sufficient to say that the young women who attended the revels on these occasions were allowed to select temporary companions of the other sex, and if they declined to do so, the chief distributed them at his pleasure. As the first edition of this chapter was being prepared, a chief, who was regarded as being more advanced towards civilisation than most of his people, came into legal collision with the European authorities for distributing a large number of girls in this manner in a district within the Cape Colony.

But degrading as this rite was among the Bantu of the coast, among some of those of the interior it was even more vile. All that the most depraved imagination could devise to rouse the lowest passions of the young females was practised. A description is impossible.

The other ceremonies observed on this occasion varied among the tribes, but an account of those of the Amaxosa at the present day will give a general idea of all. When a girl of this tribe arrives at the age of puberty, messengers are sent by her father to all the neighbouring kraals to invite the young women to attend the "ntonjane." The girl in the meantime is kept secluded in the hut of an aunt, or other female relative, and her father does not see her. Soon parties are seen coming from all sides, singing as they march. The first that arrive halt in front of the cattle kraal, where they are joined by those who come later. When the girls are all assembled, the father selects an ox to be slaughtered, and the meat is cooked for a feast. The women then dress the girls for the dance, and when this is done they are ranged in rows in front of the cattle kraal. They are almost naked, having on only a girdle round the waist, and an apron, called *cacawe*, made for the occasion out of the leaves of a certain plant. In their hands they hold assagais, using them as walking sticks.

When all is ready, four of the girls step out of the front row and dance, the rest singing; and when these are tired four others step out, and so on, until all the girls present have danced. The

spectators then applaud the best dancer, or if they do not at once fix upon the same person, the girls dance until all present agree. The girls then give room to the men and women that in the mean time have arrived, who form themselves in lines in the same manner, and dance until it is decided which of them surpass the others. The dancing is continued until sunset, when the men and women return home, leaving the party of girls, called the *jaka*, who remain overnight. Next day dancing is resumed in the same order, the guests usually arriving very early in the morning.

If the girl's father is a rich man three oxen are slaughtered, and the *ntonjane* is kept up for twelve days. On the thirteenth day the young woman comes out of the hut where she has all the time been living apart from her family. If the girl is a chief's daughter the *ntonjane* is kept up for twenty-four days. All the councillors send oxen to be slaughtered, that there may be plenty for the guests to eat.

The following ceremony takes place on the occasion of a chief's daughter coming out of the house in which she was concealed during the twenty-four days:—

A son of her father's chief councillor puts on his head the two wings of a blue crane (the *indwe*), which are regarded as an emblem of bravery only to be worn on this occasion and by veterans in times of war. He goes into the hut where she is, and when he comes out she follows him. They march towards the *kraal* where the dancing took place, the girl's mother, the *jaka* or party of young women, the girl's father, and his councillors, forming a procession. More cattle are slaughtered for the *indwe*, and then dancing is renewed, after which the girl drinks milk for the first time since the day when she was concealed in the hut. Large skin bags containing milk are sent from different *kraals* to the place where the *ntonjane* is held. Some milk is put into a small vessel made of rushes, a little of it is poured on the fire-place, the aunt or other female relative in whose charge the girl was takes the first mouthful, then she gives the milk to the girl, who, after having drunk, is taken to her mother's house. The people then disperse, and the *ntonjane* is over.

This ceremony acts as an advertisement to people far and wide that the girl can now be applied for in marriage.

The Bantu were polygamists, and women occupied a lower position than men in their society. Marriage was an arrangement, without any religious ceremony, by which in return for a girl cattle were transferred to her relatives by the husband or his friends. It did not make of a woman a slave who could be sold from hand to hand, nor did it give her husband power to maim her. In its best aspect this method of marriage was a protection to a woman against ill usage. If her husband maimed her, or treated her with undue severity, she could return to her father or guardian, who was allowed in such cases to retain both the woman and the cattle. In its worst aspect it permitted a parent or guardian to give a girl in marriage to the man who offered most for her, without the slightest reference to her inclinations. A woman was a drudge, upon whom the cultivation of the ground and other severe labour fell, she could inherit nothing, and she was liable to moderate castigation from her husband, such as a parent is at liberty to inflict upon a child, without protection from the law. Wealth was estimated by the number of wives and cattle that a man possessed, and the one was always made use of to increase the other. The husband was head or lord of the establishment, and the wives were required to provide all the food except meat and milk. Each had a hut of her own, which she and her children occupied, and the husband used his caprice as to which of them he associated with at any time.

Though the transfer of cattle alone made a marriage binding, it was customary to engage in festivities in connection with it. Those ordinarily observed in the Xosa tribe at the present day are fairly typical of all. Among these people the whole of the marriage ceremonies are included in the term *umduko*, a word derived from the verb *uku duda*, which means to dance by springing up and down, as *uku xentsa* means to dance by moving the upper parts of the body. The dance at a marriage is considered of more importance than any of the others, and is therefore frequently practised until skill in its performance is attained.

The marriage of a young woman is arranged by her father or guardian, and she is not legally supposed to be consulted in the choice of a husband. In point of fact, however, matches arising from mutual love are not uncommon. In such cases, if any difficulties are raised by the guardians on either side, the young people do not scruple to run away together, after which their relatives usually come to an arrangement. Yet instances are not wanting of girls being compelled against their wishes to marry old men, who have already perhaps five or six wives. In practice the umdudo is often deferred to a convenient season, but the woman is considered not less a wife, and her children not less legal, provided always that the transfer of cattle has taken place according to agreement.

Marriage proposals may come from the father or guardian of the young woman, or they may first be made by the man himself or the relatives of the man who wishes to take a wife. The father of a young man frequently selects a bride for him, and intimates his wish by sending a messenger to make proposals to the girl's father or guardian. In this case the messenger takes some cattle with him, when, if the advances are favourably received, an assagai is sent back, after which the relatives of the young people discuss and finally arrange the terms of the marriage. If the proposal comes from the girl's father, he sends an assagai, which is accepted if the suit is agreeable, or returned if it is not.

When the preliminary arrangements are concluded, unless, as sometimes happens, it is considered expedient to permit the marriage at once to take place, but to postpone the festivities to a more convenient season, a bridal procession is formed at the young woman's kraal, to escort her to her future home. It consists of her relatives and all the young people of both sexes who can get away. It leaves at such a time as to arrive at its destination after dark, and endeavours to reach the place without attracting notice. The bridal party takes with it a cow, given by the bride's father or guardian to confer fortune upon her, and hence called the *ingakwe*. This cow is afterwards well taken care of by the husband. The party has also an ox provided by the

same person, as his contribution towards the marriage feast. On the following morning at daylight the ox is killed, when a portion of the meat is taken by the bride's party, and the remainder is left for the people of the kraal. The bridegroom's friends then send messengers to invite the people of the neighbourhood to the feast, and as soon as these arrive the dancing commences.

In the dance the men stand in lines three, four, or more rows in depth, according to their number, and at a little distance behind the women stand in the same order. The men stand with their heads erect and their arms locked together. They are nearly naked, but wear ornaments of brass around their waists. The trappings of the war dance are altogether wanting. The women are, however, in full dress, for their part consists only in singing. When all are ready, a man who has been selected for the purpose commences to sing, the others immediately join in, and at a certain note the whole of the men rise together from the ground. The dance consists merely in springing straight up and coming down with a quivering of the body; but when the men warm to it, it gives them great satisfaction. The song is very monotonous, the same note occurring at every rise from the ground. This dancing, with intervals of rest and feasting, continues as long as the bridegroom's relatives supply oxen for slaughter. A day suffices for a poor man, but a rich man's marriage festivities may last a week or upwards.

On the closing day the bridegroom and his friends march from one hut, while the bride and her party march from another, so as to meet in front of the entrance to the cattle kraal. The bride carries an assagai in her hand, which she throws so as to stick in the ground inside the kraal in an upright position. This is the last of the ceremonies, and the guests immediately begin to disperse, each man taking home the milk-sack which he had brought with him. In olden times ox-racing usually took place on the closing day, but this custom has of late years fallen into neglect.

There were different restrictions with regard to the females whom a man was at liberty to marry. No man of any coast tribe would marry a girl whose relationship by blood to himself on his father's side could be traced, no matter how distantly connected

they might be. So scrupulous was he in this respect that he would not even marry a girl who belonged to another tribe, if she had the same family name as himself, though the relationship could not be traced. A man, for instance, whose family title was the Amanywabe, might belong to the Dushane clan of the Xosa tribe. Among the Tembus, the Pondos, the Zulus, and many other distinct communities, are people with this same family title. They cannot trace any relationship with each other, but wherever they are found they have ceremonies peculiar to themselves. Thus the customs observed at the birth of a child are exactly the same in every part of the country among people of the same family title, though they may never have heard of each other, while neighbours of the same clan, but of different family titles, have these customs altogether dissimilar. This indicates that the tribes and clans of the present day are combinations of others that were dispersed before their traditional history commenced. No marriage between the Amanywabe is permissible.

In some tribes, as at present in the Pondos, Tembus, and Xosas, the same rule was applied to relatives by blood on the mother's side also. Children take the family title of the father, and can thus marry those of the same family title as the mother, provided their blood relationship cannot be traced. Every man of a coast tribe regarded himself as the protector of those females whom we would call his cousins, second cousins, third cousins, and so forth, on the father's side, while some had a similar feeling towards the same relatives on the mother's side as well, and classified them all as sisters. Immorality with one of them would have been considered incestuous, something horrible, something unutterably disgraceful. Of old it was punished by the death of the male, and even now a heavy fine is inflicted upon him, while the guilt of the female must be atoned by a sacrifice performed with due ceremony by the tribal priest, or it is believed a curse will rest upon her and her issue.

Of late years this feeling has become less operative than formerly among those Bantu of the coast belt who have long been in contact with Europeans, still immorality between persons

related to each other as above described is extremely rare. It is still more so among those who have learned little or nothing from white men. Shortly after the annexation of Pondoland to the Cape Colony the principal chief of the western division of that territory instituted an inquiry into one such case, which he reported to a magistrate, and wished the usual punishment to be inflicted. The common ancestor was found on investigation to be seven generations back, still in public opinion the crime was enormous.

In contrast to this prohibition the native of the interior almost as a rule married the daughter of his father's brother, in order, as he said, to keep property from being lost to his family. This custom more than anything else created a disgust and contempt for them by the people of the coast, who term such intermarriages the union of dogs, and attribute to them the insanity and idiocy which in recent times has become prevalent among the inland tribes.*

In no section of the Bantu was there any restriction in regard to marrying a wife's blood relatives. Thus a man might marry two sisters, though not at the same time, and of course two brothers might marry two sisters. Sometimes it happened that a man and his wife could not agree and that he could bring some substantial charge against her, when, if she had a young unmarried sister, an arrangement was usually made by which she returned to her parents and her sister took her place, on the husband's making a small addition to the cattle that had been transferred on the first occasion.

This was also the case when, as sometimes happened, a woman was childless. Such a person finds little favour in Bantu society, so that on becoming a mother a wife who has been married some

* Among the tribes within the Cape Colony at the present time the differences are as follows:—

Xosas, Tembus, and Pondos: marry no relative by blood, however distant, on either father's or mother's side.

Hlubis and others commonly called Fingos: may marry the daughter of mother's brother and other relatives on that side, but not on father's side.

Basuto, Batlaro, Batlapin, and Barolong: very frequently marry cousins on father's side, and know of no restrictions beyond actual sisters.

time may say from the bottom of her heart, with Elizabeth of old, that "her reproach is taken away from among men." A childless woman is usually exchanged for a marriageable sister, but the husband is required first to perform a ceremony which can be illustrated by a case tried before the writer when acting as a border magistrate in 1881. A sued B to recover the value of a heifer supplied to him two years before under these circumstances. B's wife, who was distantly related to A, had been married more than a year without bearing a child. B thereupon applied to him for a heifer, the hair of the tail of which was needed by the doctor of the clan to make a charm to put round the woman's neck. He had supplied one for the purpose, and now wanted payment for it. The defence was that A, being the woman's nearest relative who had cattle, was bound to furnish a heifer for the purpose. The hair of the tail was needed, the doctor had made a charm of it and hung it round the woman's neck, and she had thereafter given birth to a son. The heifer could not be returned after being so used. In this case, if the plaintiff had been so nearly related to defendant's wife as to have participated in the benefit of the cattle given by her husband for her, he could not have justified his claim under Bantu law; but as he was very distantly connected, he got judgment. The feeling entertained by the spectators in court in this instance was that B had acted very ungratefully towards A, who had not even been present at the woman's marriage feast, but who had cheerfully acted in conformity with the custom which requires that a charm must be made out of the hair of the tail of a heifer belonging to a relative of a childless wife, in order to cause her to bear children.

Far the greater number of lawsuits among the Bantu arose from their marriage customs. The cattle to be transferred to the family of a woman were seldom or never fully paid until long after the union, and in the meantime if the husband died disputes were almost sure to arise as to what family the widow and her children belonged, whether she had a right to return to her parents, if so whether she could take any of her offspring with her, and so on. The nearest relative of the deceased man had

it in his power to settle the matter at once by paying the cattle still due, but he did not always follow that course. If there were any daughters, an arrangement was possible that of the cattle to be received for them when they should marry the number due on account of the mother should be paid. But even in this case disputes were sure to arise. One party would fix the number very differently from the other, and then the case would have to be tried, when every little particular from first to last was entered into, and the utmost patience was needed before a decision could be arrived at. Sometimes these cases depended upon the payment or non-payment of cattle three generations back, for in Bantu opinion if a grandmother had not been fully incorporated into the family of her husband, that is if the full number of cattle had not been transferred for her, the position of her descendants was doubtful, two distinct families having claims upon them. In their expressive way of speaking, such cases did not die.

Chastity in married life was exceedingly rare among the coast tribes. By custom every wife of a polygamist had a lover, and no woman sank in the esteem of her companions on this becoming publicly known. The law allowed the husband a fine from the male offender, and permitted him to chastise the woman, provided he did not maim her; but in the opinion of the females the offence was venial and was not attended with disgrace. Favoured guests had female companions—who were, however, generally widows—allotted to them. Still, chastity had a value in the estimation of the men, as was proved by the care with which the harems of a few of the most powerful chiefs were guarded. It might be thought that the framework of society would fall to pieces if domestic life were more immoral than this, but in point of fact a kraal on the coast was a scene of purity when compared with one in some parts of the interior.

There it was a common occurrence for a chief to secure the services and adherence of a young man by the loan of one of his inferior wives either temporarily or permanently. In either case the children belonged to the chief, who was regarded by the law as their father. Another revolting custom among them was that of polyandrous marriages. A man who had not the requisite

number of cattle to procure a wife, and whose father was too poor to help him, obtained assistance from a wealthy individual on condition of having joint marital rights.

In some of the tribes women were obliged to invent for many purposes different words from those used by every one around them, and it sometimes happened that these newly formed words supplanted the old ones. This arose from a custom which prohibited females from pronouncing the names of any of their husband's male relatives in the ascending line, or any words whatever in which the principal syllables of such names occurred. If a traveller came to a kraal and happened to ask a woman who was its headman, if that individual was her husband's father or uncle or elder brother she could not reply, but was obliged to call some one else to give the required information. The violation of this custom was considered as showing a want of respect for connections by marriage. Women avoided meeting their husband's male relatives in the ascending line, whenever it was possible to do so, and never sat down in their presence.

CHAPTER IV.

DESCRIPTION OF THE BANTU (*continued*).

THE Bantu were agriculturists. Millet of several varieties, all now called by Europeans kaffir-corn, was the grain exclusively grown. They raised large quantities of this, which they used either boiled or bruised into paste from which a very insipid kind of bread was made. In good seasons much millet was converted into beer. It was steeped in water until it began to sprout, then dried in the sun, and afterwards partly crushed in wooden mortars made by hollowing the end of a block of wood about three feet high. Two women, standing by the mortar, stamped the contents with heavy wooden pestles, keeping time with the strokes and usually lightening their labour by chanting some meaningless words. The malt was then boiled, and leaven mixed with it to cause it to ferment. Sometimes a bitter root was added to flavour it. It could be made so weak as to form a harmless and refreshing beverage, or so strong as to be intoxicating. In the latter case unmalted corn was crushed and mixed with water, which was then boiled, and malt was added afterwards until it was almost as thick as gruel, and to a European palate would have been nauseating. Millet beer was largely consumed at feasts of all kinds. It was used as soon as it ceased fermenting, for it speedily became sour. Some women were reputed to be able to make it much better than others, and on that account their services were largely in demand. In some parts of the country an intoxicating drink was also made from honey, which was plentiful in the season of flowers.

More pernicious was the custom of smoking the dried leaves of wild hemp, which had the effect of producing violent coughing,

followed by stupefaction. The usual pipe was a horn, but sometimes the smoke was inhaled through a clay tube made on the surface of the ground, and sometimes it was drawn through a vessel partly filled with water. A number of men would sit round the smoking apparatus, and each in turn make use of it until all were helpless. Another means of intoxication was afforded by the same leaves of the wild hemp, which, when dried and reduced to powder, were mixed with water and drunk. The practice, however, either of smoking or drinking bangué was confined to a small section of each community, and the baneful plant was only obtainable at certain seasons of the year. In the form of snuff the stalks as well as the leaves and fibres, dried and beaten into powder, could be preserved, and were more generally used.

Among the coast tribes a supply of grain sufficient to last until the next season was preserved from the attacks of weevil by burying it in air-tight pits excavated beneath the cattle-folds. When kept for a long time in these granaries, the grain lost the power of germinating, and acquired a rank taste and smell, but it was in that condition none the less agreeable to the Bantu palate. The interior tribes preserved their grain either in huge earthenware crocks or in enormous baskets, which were perfectly watertight, and which could be exposed to the air without damage to their contents.

Different kinds of gourds, a cane containing saccharine matter in large quantities, and a sort of ground nut were the other products of their gardens. In the country between the lower Zambesi and Sabi rivers rice and various foreign vegetables had been introduced by the Arabs long before the beginning of the sixteenth century, but the cultivation of these had not extended to the interior or the southern tribes. Everywhere wild bulbs and plants, the pith of certain shrubs, and different kinds of indigenous fruit formed no inconsiderable part of the vegetable diet of the people. Children at a very early age were taught to look for edible plants, and soon acquired such extensive knowledge in this respect that they were able to support themselves easily where Europeans would have perished.

As food they had also milk and occasionally flesh, though domestic cattle were seldom slaughtered except for sacrifices and feasts. The flesh of all that otherwise died was, however, eaten without hesitation. Milk was kept in skin bags, where it fermented and acquired a sharp acid taste. As it was drawn off for use by the master of the household, who was the only one permitted to touch the bag, new milk was added, for it was only in the fermented state that it was used. Amasi, or fermented milk, was exceedingly nutritious, and at the present day is relished by most Europeans. In warm weather, especially, it is a pleasant and wholesome beverage. The art of making butter and cheese was unknown.

Fish was consumed only by the tribes living along the large rivers in the interior and those on the eastern coast from Delagoa Bay northward. South of Delagoa Bay it was not used, except by offshoots from the northern tribes that had settled at a few places along the sea shore, possibly because in ancient times it may have been regarded as connected with the snake in whose form the ancestral spirits appeared. This, however, is mere conjecture, as the people themselves at the present day can give no other reason for not eating fish than that their fathers did not do so.

Occasionally large quantities of meat were obtained by means of the chase. The chief would select a day, and give instructions for all his people to assist in the hunt. A tract of country many square miles in extent would then be surrounded, and the game would be driven towards a large and deep pit, with a strong hedge extending some distance on each side of it. The pit was made in such a way that no animal forced into it by pressure of the herd behind could escape until it was full. By the war-like tribes the pit was often disdained as a means of capturing such game as antelopes and zebras, and they preferred gradually to contract the circle of hunters and drive the animals towards the centre, killing with their assagais all that could not break through the ring. After one of these hunts feasting was continued until not a particle of meat was left, as the palates of the people did not reject what Europeans would regard as carrion.

Very large animals, such as the elephant, the hippopotamus, and the rhinoceros were generally captured either by means of snares that caused a heavily weighted spear to fall upon them as they passed under a tree, or by means of carefully covered pits with sharp stakes in them, made in the beaten tracks of the animals towards water. Sometimes, however, men were found sufficiently courageous to lie in ambush beside the paths and hamstring the animals as they went by, when their destruction was easy. North of the Sabi river the tusks of the elephant and the hippopotamus were always saleable to the Mohamedan traders along the coast, and everywhere among the Bantu ivory arm rings were esteemed as ornaments. The flesh of all these animals was much prized, especially that of the hippopotamus.

Another occasional article of food was dried locusts. Swarms of these destructive creatures sometimes appeared, when every one engaged in capturing and preserving them, the legs, when dried, being regarded as not only nutritious, but pleasant to the taste. By the people of the interior a species of caterpillar was considered a special dainty, and the little field mouse was eagerly sought for as another. Boys before being circumcised were permitted to eat any kind of meat, even wild cats and other carnivora, but after that ceremony was performed the flesh of animals of prey was usually rejected.

Ordinarily two meals were eaten every day: a slight breakfast in the morning, and a substantial repast at sunset. Anyone passing by at that time, friend or stranger, provided only that he was not inferior in rank, sat down without invitation or ceremony, and shared in the meal. So great was the hospitality of the people to equals and superiors that food could almost have been termed common property.

When reduced to great extremity of want by the ravages of enemies, sections of the Bantu sometimes resorted to cannibalism, but the horrible practice was by no means common. Portuguese writers indeed mention tribes whose habitual food was human flesh, still everything related concerning them shows that they were war-stricken hordes driven from their ancestral homes and wandering about with their hands against every man and every

man's hands against them. In just the same manner in the early years of the nineteenth century parties of absolutely destitute people in the Lesuto and in Natal, driven into the forests and mountains by the devastations of Tshaka, preyed upon their fellows, whom they pursued as game; but as soon as a condition of comparative peace was restored, most of them returned to their normal way of living. A few indeed, who had acquired a taste for human flesh, though they were held in execration by all others, continued to exist as cannibals until they died out or were exterminated. It must have been the same in olden times with the tribes along the Zambesi of whom information is given by Dos Santos and other Portuguese writers: it was the direst necessity, not by any means their own choice, that led them to adopt a mode of maintaining life so different from that of their race in general. They may have continued longer in that condition than those in the south in the days of Tshaka, but it is certain that no tribe depended permanently upon human flesh for its subsistence.

The Bantu had an admirable system of land tenure. The chief apportioned to each head of a family sufficient ground for a garden according to his needs, and it remained in that individual's possession as long as it was cultivated. He could even remove for years, with the consent of the chief, and resume occupation upon his return. He could not lend, much less alienate it. But if he ceased to make use of it, or went away for a long time without the chief's permission, he lost his right. Under the same conditions he had possession of the ground upon which his huts stood, and of a yard about them. All other ground was common pasture, but the chief had power to direct that portions of it should be used in particular seasons only. No taxes of any kind were paid for land, air, or water.

The gardens were not enclosed by hedges or fences, and they were very irregular in outline, as were also the different cultivated plots within them, for the eyes of the women were indifferent as to straight rows of plants. If the crops were damaged by cattle at night, the owner of the cattle was required by law to make good the loss, because he should have seen that

his herds were either confined in a fold or guarded on a pasture so distant that they could do no harm. But if the damage was done in the daytime there was no redress, because some member of the family of the owner of the garden was then supposed to be watching it. So sensible and practical was the common law of these people.

Kraals were usually built in situations commanding an extensive view of the surrounding country, and always on ground with good natural drainage. The brow of a hill, with a clear flowing stream at its base and fertile garden ground beyond, was the site most favoured. Sanitary arrangements, even of the simplest kind, were unknown and uncared for, as the sense of smell was much duller with these people than with Europeans, and an impure atmosphere did not affect their health. Their superstition too required them to remove their residences whenever a man of importance died, so that kraals seldom remained many years on the same site.

Clans exposed to sudden attack by powerful enemies had naturally little or no choice in selecting sites for kraals. They were under the necessity of constructing their habitations in the best possible defensive position, which was usually the crown of a steep hill difficult of approach. Such hills are found in different parts of the country, often with sides so precipitous that the top can be reached by only one or two paths. When these were barricaded with rough stone walls, the space above became a fortress, impregnable or nearly so. Such sites for kraals were, however, only resorted to as a last means of defence, on account of the occupants being cut off from gardens and pasture for their cattle as well as from easy access to water. Along the Zambesi some clans lived in stockaded enclosures, but these were unknown farther south.

The huts of the tribes along the coast were shaped like domes or beehives, and were formed of strong frames, thatched with reeds or grass. They were proof against rain or wind. The largest were about twenty-five feet in diameter, and seven or eight feet in height at the centre. They were entered by a low, narrow aperture, which was the only opening in the structure. A

hard and smooth floor was made of antheaps, moistened with water and then kneaded with a round stone. When this had set, it was painted with a mixture of cowdung and water, which was the material used afterwards for keeping it in good order. In the centre of the floor a fireplace was made, by raising a band an inch or two in height and three or four feet in diameter, and slightly hollowing the enclosed space. Many women bestowed a great deal of attention upon their fire-circles, often enclosing them with three bands, a large one in the centre and a smaller one on each side of it, differently coloured, and resembling a coil of large rope lying between concentric coils of less thickness. Against the wall of the hut were ranged various utensils in common use, the space around the fire-circle being reserved for sleeping on. Here in the evening mats were spread, upon which the inmates lay down to rest, each one's feet being towards the centre. Above their heads the roof was glossy with soot, and vermin swarmed on every side. It was only in cold or stormy weather that huts were occupied during the day, for the people spent the greater portion of their waking hours in the open air.

The habitations of the people of the interior were much better than those of the people of the coast. With them the hut had perpendicular walls, and consisted of a central circular room, with three or four small apartments outside, each being a segment of a circle. It was surrounded with an enclosed courtyard, but was destitute of chimney or window. On the coast no effort was made to secure privacy.

Horned cattle constituted the principal wealth of the Bantu, and formed a convenient medium of exchange throughout the country. Great care was taken of them, and much skill was exhibited in their training. They were taught to obey signals, as, for instance, to run home upon a certain call or whistle being given. Every man of note had his racing oxen, and prided himself upon their good qualities as much as an English squire did upon his blood horses. The horns of the animals were trained into the most fantastic shapes, and were often divided into two, three, or more parts, which was effected by slitting them as soon as they appeared on the young animal. The

intelligence displayed by some of these oxen was as wonderful as the patience and skill shown by their trainers. They were taught to lie down at an order, to run in a circle, or to dance in rows. Ox racing was connected with all kinds of festivities. The care of cattle was considered the most honourable employment, and fell entirely to the men. They milked the cows, took sole charge of the dairy, and would not permit a woman so much as to touch a milksack.

The other domestic animals were goats, dogs, and barnyard poultry everywhere, and in the north sheep of the large-tailed hair-covered breed.

The descent of property was regulated in the same manner as the succession to the chieftainship, and disputes could not easily arise concerning it. Every head of cattle a man acquired was immediately assigned to a particular branch of his family, that is either to the house of his great wife, to that of his wife of the right hand, or to that of his wife of the left hand. If he had more wives than three, the remainder were in a subordinate position in one or other of these houses. When he died, the eldest son of each of the three principal wives inherited everything that belonged to his mother's house. But the distribution of wealth was more equal than in any European society, for each married man had a plot of garden ground, and younger brothers had a recognised claim upon the heirs of their father for assistance in setting them up in life.

The Bantu of the coast were more warlike in disposition and braver in the field than those of the interior. The universal weapons of offence were wooden clubs with heavy heads and assagais or javelins, and shields made of ox-hide were carried, which varied in size and pattern among the tribes. The assagai was a slender wooden shaft or rod, with a long, thin, iron head, having both edges sharp, attached to it. Poising this first in his uplifted hand, and imparting to it a quivering motion, the warrior hurled it forth with great force and accuracy of aim. The club was used at close quarters, and could also be thrown to a considerable distance. Boys were trained from an early age to the use of both these weapons. To those above named the

northern tribes added the battle axe and bow and arrow, which, though known to, were not used by the men of the south.

In the most warlike of the Bantu communities the men were formed into regiments, and were trained to act in concert and to go through various simple military evolutions, but in the others the warrior knew nothing but the use of his weapons. With these a battle was a series of individual engagements, in which it sometimes happened that a man would challenge a noted adversary by name, and a duel would take place in presence of the others on both sides as mere spectators. In such cases the victor was presented by his chief with a crane's feather to be worn on his head, and he was thereafter a man of note among his people. A classification thus arose of the plumed and the unplumed in the following of a chief, though the former did not thereby become leaders or officers, that distinction being reserved exclusively for members of the ruling house. It was a custom for a man to be marked, usually with a scar from a gash or a brand, for every adversary slain, and warriors prided themselves relatively upon the number of these.

Among the military tribes reviews in presence of the chiefs and mock combats were of frequent occurrence. The warriors were in full dress on such occasions, with their kilts of animals' tails around them, and their ornaments on their persons. Everything was conducted with as much order and ceremony as were observed by our own ancestors in their tournaments. At the command of the chief one regiment would be pitted against another, and each would attack, retreat, skirmish, and go through all the evolutions of a real battle until the weaker side became exhausted, when the other was pronounced the conqueror. Or it might be a general skirmish of the whole army against an imaginary enemy, or an attack upon a hill supposed to be fortified, or simply a march of the regiments past the commander in chief. Sometimes oxen were brought to take part in the manoeuvres and to prove the skill of their trainers. A feast and a dance invariably followed, but often jealousies had been roused by the events of the day which led afterwards to engagements in real earnest between different regiments.

The dress of the people between the lower Zambesi and Sabi rivers at the beginning of the sixteenth century was partly composed of skins of animals and partly of cloth either obtained in barter or manufactured by themselves of wild cotton or the fibres of a certain bark. The home made cloth was coarse but strong, and was woven in the simplest manner in squares large enough to be fastened round the loins. The art of weaving, though not much more difficult than mat making, was not practised by all the clans, but by certain of them who traded with their productions. At a much earlier date the Arabs and Persians had introduced Indian calico, and squares of this material, obtained in exchange for ivory and gold, were in common use in that part of the country.

Elsewhere the ordinary dress of men when the air was chilly was composed of skins of wild animals formed into a square mantle the size of a large blanket, which they wrapped about their persons. The skin of the leopard was reserved for chiefs and their principal councillors, but any other could be used by common people. Married women wore a leather wrapper like a petticoat at all times, and big girls at least an apron of leather strings, usually much more. In warm weather men and little children commonly went quite naked.

They were fond of decorating their persons with ornaments, such as necklaces of shells and teeth of animals, arm-rings of copper and ivory, head bands, etc. They rubbed themselves from head to foot with fat and red ochre, which made them look like polished bronze. Their clothing was greased and coloured in the same manner.

Many of them worked lines and simple patterns on different parts of their bodies—chiefly the breasts, shoulders, cheeks, and stomachs—by raising the skin in little knobs with a sharp iron awl and burning it, a process that to European eyes disfigured them much more than tattooing would have done, but which they regarded as ornamental. Each community that adhered to this custom favoured a form of cicatrice different from that of its neighbours, but there were numerous tribes that were without such markings. So with the front teeth: some clans filed them

to a point, a few removed the two upper, but most allowed them to remain in their natural state. The hideous boring and plugging the lips and cheeks, so common north of the Zambesi, was not practised south of that river.

More attention was bestowed upon the hair than upon any other part of the body. Each tribe had its own fashion of wearing it, so that at first sight the nationality of an individual was known. Some worked it with wax and strings into imitations of horns, others into arches, others into circles, and so on. This necessitated the use of a peculiar head rest when sleeping, to prevent the hair from becoming disordered. The rest was made of a single piece of wood, according to the fancy of its owner. Some were eighteen inches long, two or three inches wide, and as many deep, with a slightly concave surface. Others were only six to eight inches long, four to eight inches high, and two to three inches wide, with a deep concave surface for the head to lie in. Some of these were beautifully carved out of a block of hard wood, and were highly polished by being frequently rubbed with grease. In no other manufacture of wood was so much ingenuity displayed in designing patterns. An elaborate head rest used by a chief, for instance, might be a carved band supported by two, three, four, or even six columns standing on an oval or oblong base, each column fluted or otherwise decorated, and the base covered with little knobs or marked with a herring bone pattern. Or it might be of almost any conceivable design between that and a plain block of wood of the requisite shape. It was never more than three or four inches wide, because it was necessary for the head to project beyond it, in order that the horns or other forms into which the woolly hair was trained might remain undisturbed.

Their manufactures, however, were not of a very high order when judged by a European standard of the present day. Foremost among them must be reckoned metallic wares, which included implements of war and husbandry and ornaments for the person. In many parts of the country iron ore was abundant, and this they smelted in a simple manner. Forming a furnace of clay or a boulder with a hollow surface, out of which a groove was

made to allow the liquid metal to escape, and into which a hole was pierced for the purpose of introducing a current of air, they piled up a heap of charcoal and virgin ore, which they afterwards covered in such a way as to prevent the escape of heat. The bellows by which air was introduced were made of skins drawn from the animal with as little cutting as possible. These were inflated by opening the ends, which were then closed, when the air was pressed through horns of large antelopes tightly fixed at the other extremities. Two skins were worked by one man, using his hands alternately, and thus a continuous current was kept up. The molten iron, escaping from the crude yet effective furnace, ran into clay moulds prepared to receive it, which were as nearly as possible of the same dimensions as the implements they wished to make. These were never of great size, the largest being the picks or heavy hoes required for gardening.

The smith, using a boulder for an anvil and a hammer of stone, next proceeded to shape the lump of metal into an assagai head, an axe, a pick, or whatever was wanted. The occupation of the worker in iron was hereditary in certain families, and was carried on with a good deal of mystery, the common belief being that it was necessary to employ charms unknown to those not initiated. But the arts of the founder and the blacksmith had not advanced beyond the elementary stage. Instead of an opening for inserting a handle in the hoe, it terminated in a spike which was driven into a hole burnt through the knob of a heavy shaft of wood. The assagai was everywhere in use, and in addition the interior tribes made crescent-shaped battle-axes, which were fastened to handles in the same manner as the hoes. On these implements of war they bestowed all their skill, and really produced neatly finished articles. They worked the metal cold, and were unable to weld two pieces together.

Knives, or more properly daggers, for the ends were pointed and both edges were sharp, were also made of iron. The handles, which were of wood, bone, horn, or even occasionally of ivory, were frequently ornamented, as were also the sheaths of wood or bone in which they were carried. The amount of labour

required to make one of these implements and its sheath was very considerable, so that its value relatively to other articles was high, and it was not every man who was so fortunate as to possess a knife. It was carried about by means of a thong round the neck, and lay on the chest a little lower than the charms and strings of teeth and other ornaments, so that it was always ready for use. It was not regarded as a weapon of war, and indeed was unfit for much real service in combat.

Copper was found in several parts of the country, and was distributed over it by means of barter. It was used only for making such ornaments for the person as large beads, earrings, and armlets. Much less skill was employed in working this metal than in manufacturing iron implements, the articles produced being of a very rough kind, not to be compared in point of finish with a battle-axe or an assagai. The armlet was a mere bar bent until its ends met, and the earring was of no better workmanship. The beads were nothing more than drilled lumps of metal globular in shape, and were strung with bits of wood and teeth of animals on a thong. The neater ornaments of copper and brass wire now in use, and exhibited in various museums as specimens of Bantu industry, are of modern date, made of materials obtained from Europeans.

In the manufacture of wooden articles, such as spoons, bowls, fighting-sticks, mortars, etc., they were tolerably expert. Each article was made of a single block of wood, requiring much time and patience to complete it, and upon it was frequently carved some simple pattern or the figure of an animal. Standing on the handle of a spoon might be seen a lizard, an ox, or an elephant, though always stiff in attitude, encircling the fighting stick might be seen two or three snakes with spots burnt upon them to make them resemble the living reptiles.

The tribes bordering on some of the rivers of the interior and along the eastern coast north of Delagoa Bay were able to construct canoes out of the trunk of a single tree, and knew how to propel them with paddles, but this simple art was not practised elsewhere. No means for crossing a swollen river, other than carrying a stone under each arm if the water was not too deep,

had been devised by the Bantu of the coast below Delagoa Bay, and ocean navigation was of course unthought of.

A product of some ingenuity was a little vase used for various purposes. It was made of the scrapings of skins, which when soft were spread over clay moulds, and when dry became solid cases. The clay was then taken out with an *isilanda*, or large iron pin which every man carried about with him to extract thorns from his feet, and the vessel was ready for use. Some were in the shape of animals, others of gourds, or whatever else the moulders desired. Usually while the gluey matter was still soft it was creased, or raised in ridges, or pricked all over with a sharp piece of wood, which greatly improved its appearance. Some of these articles, especially those in the form of European vases or decanters, were really extremely neat and pretty.

Skins for clothing, when the fur was preserved, were prepared by scraping them carefully and then thumping them with the hand and rubbing them for a length of time with a very smooth stone, by which means they were made nearly as soft and pliable as cloth. The interior tribes excelled in the art of dressing skins, and were able to make beautiful fur robes, which they stitched with sinews by the help of an awl. When the hair was removed from skins to make wrappers for women the process of preparing them was different. They were steeped in water, scraped on both sides, then dried, and afterwards beaten and rubbed with grease till they were soft. Finally they were cut into shape and sewed with sinews to the required size, when the wrapper was coloured with red ochre and was ready for use.

In one comparatively small district of South Africa,—the territory between the lower courses of the Zambesi and Sabi rivers,—men were sometimes engaged in an occupation altogether unknown to their kindred elsewhere. This was the collection of gold. The chiefs were induced by the Mohamedan traders of the coast to employ bands of their subjects in searching for the precious metal, principally by alluvial washing in the rainy season, though sometimes by mining and extracting quartz from reefs by the aid of fire. The quartz when brought to the surface

was crushed, and the gold was then obtained by washing. This gold was inferior to the other in quality, and was known by a different name. According to Dos Santos the diggers were termed *botonghi*, which is evidently an approximation to the *Sekalanga* word for gatherers, from the root *uku buta*, to collect or gather. This industry must have come down from very remote times, when it was practised to a much greater extent than at the beginning of the sixteenth century.

The industries above mentioned were confined to males, but in other departments the women were equally skilful. Earthenware vessels containing from half a pint to fifty gallons were constructed by them, some of which were almost as perfect in form as if they had been turned on a wheel. Though they were frequently not more than an eighth of an inch in thickness, they were so finely tempered that the most intense heat did not damage them. These vessels were used for beer pots, grain jars, and cooking utensils. The potter's art has now become nearly if not wholly lost by the Bantu of South Africa, owing to the cheapness of importations from abroad. The women have found by experience that with much less labour they can earn sufficient money to purchase earthenware crocks, iron pots, and wooden kegs, and so contact with civilisation has had the effect in this respect of diminishing their former skill.

Baskets for holding corn, rush mats for sleeping on, small mats used like plates to serve food on, and grass bags were made by the women. The bags were so carefully and strongly woven that they were used to hold water or any other liquid. In general none of these articles were dyed, nor was any attempt made to ornament them, though by a few of the people of the interior simple patterns were worked with materials of different colour.

Of the use of stone for building purposes, the coast tribes knew nothing, and the interior tribes very little. None of them ever dressed a block, but the cattle-folds, which along the coast were constructed of branches of trees, in parts of the interior were made of round stones roughly laid together to form a wall. The quern, or handmill for grinding corn, which was in common

use, consisted of untrimmed stones, one flat or hollow and the other round or oval.

When not engaged in the industries that have been mentioned, the men were habitual idlers. A great portion of their time was passed in visiting and gossip, of which they were exceedingly fond. They spent days together engaged in small talk, and were perfect masters of that kind of argument which consists in parrying a question by putting another. Though not pilferers, they were inveterate cattle thieves. According to their ideas, cattle stealing except from people of their own clan was not so much a crime as a civil offence, and no disgrace was attached to it, though if it was proved against a man the law compelled him to make ample restitution. But any one detected in the act of lifting cattle might be killed with impunity by the owner, and a chief punished with death any of his subjects whose conduct as a robber from other clans had a tendency to involve his own people in war.

The interior tribes were the more advanced in skill in such handicrafts as were common to them all. Their males sometimes aided the females in agriculture, though the hardest and most constant labour was by them also left to the women. But with these exceptions, all comparisons between the tribes must be favourable to those of the coast. The Bantu of the interior were smaller in stature and less handsome in appearance than the splendidly formed men who lived on the terraces facing the sea. In all that is comprised in the word manliness they were vastly lower.

Truth is not a virtue of barbarian life. In general if a man could extricate himself from a difficulty, escape punishment, or gain any other advantage by telling a falsehood, and did not do so, he was regarded as a fool. Many of the chiefs of the coast tribes, however, prided themselves on adhering faithfully to their promises; but the word of an interior chief was seldom worth anything.

The deceptive power of all these people was great. But there was one member which the coast native could not entirely control, and while with a countenance otherwise devoid of

expression he related the grossest falsehood or the most tragic event, his lively eye often betrayed the passions he was feeling. When falsehood was brought home to him unanswerably, he cast his glances to the ground or around him, but did not meet the eye of the man he had been attempting to deceive. The native of the interior, on the contrary, had no conception whatever of shame attached to falsehood, and his comparatively listless eye was seldom allowed to betray him.

The native of the coast was brave in the field: his inland kinsman was in general an arrant coward. The one was modest when speaking of his exploits, the other was an intolerable boaster. The difference between them in this respect was great and was shown in many ways, but a single illustration from an occurrence of the present generation will give an idea of it. Faku, son of Gungushe, chief of the Pondos, by no means the best specimen of a coast native, once wished to show his regard for a white man who was residing with him. He collected a large herd of cattle, which he presented with this expression: "You have no food to eat, and we desire to show our good will towards you, take this basket of corn from the children of Gungushe." An inland chief about the same time presented a half-starved old goat to his guest, with the expression "Behold an ox!"*

Among the coast tribes the institution of slavery did not exist, but there could be no more heartless slave-owners in the world than some of the people of the interior. Their bondsmen were the descendants of those who had been scattered by war, and

* This was unquestionably the case when Europeans first came into contact with the different tribes and placed on record the peculiarities of each, but it is not so in all instances at the present day. The chief of our time who possesses the highest moral qualities of any in South Africa is Khama, ruler of the Bamangwato. Bathoen, chief of the Bangwaketsi, and Sebele, chief of the Bakwena, are also superior to most of the other Bantu rulers. All of these are heads of interior tribes. It is not only from the observations of others, but from personal experience, that the writer of these pages is able to state that the chiefs here named are capable of acting with such generosity and good feeling as would do credit to any European. But they are exceptions to the general rule, and unfortunately few of their followers come up to their standard.

who had lost everything but life. They could not own so much as the skin of an antelope, and upon any caprice of their masters they were put to death with as little compunction as if they were vermin.

In a state of society in which women were drudges performing all the severest labour, in which a man carrying only an assagai and a knobbed stick walked in front of his wives and daughters all bearing heavy burdens on their heads, it might be supposed that the females were unhappy. Such a supposition, however, would be erroneous. Freedom from care to anything like the extent that is common to most individuals of our own race tended to make Bantu females as well as males far happier on the whole than white people.

The women were quite as cheerful as the men, and knew as well as Europeans how to make their influence felt. In times of peace, after working in her garden a great part of the day, towards evening a woman collected a bundle of sticks, and with it on her head and a child on her back, trudged homeward. Having made a fire, she then proceeded to grind some soaked millet upon a quern, humming a monotonous tune as she worked the stone. When sufficient was ground, it was made into a roll, and placed in the hot ashes to bake. Meantime curdled milk was drawn by the head of the household from the skin bags in which it was kept, and the bags were refilled with milk just taken from the cows. The men made a hearty meal of the milk and the bread, with sometimes the flesh of game and different vegetable products, and after they had finished the women and children partook of what was left. Then the men gathered round the fire and chatted together, and the young people sat and listened to the stories told by some old woman till the time for sleep arrived. Different games were also played occasionally, but as the only artificial light was that of burning wood, they were usually carried on in the daytime.

At a very early age boys commenced trials of skill against each other in throwing knobbed sticks and imitation assagais. They enjoyed this exercise in little groups, those of the same age keeping together, for there was no greater tyrant in the

world than a big lad over his younger fellows. Commencing with an ant-heap at a distance of ten or fifteen yards for a target, they gradually became so perfect that they could hit an object a foot square twice or even three times as far off. The knobbed stick and the imitation assagai were thrown in different ways, the object with the first being to inflict a heavy blow upon the mark aimed at, while that with the last was to pierce it. This exercise strengthened the muscles of the arms and gave expansion to the chest. The result was that when the boys were grown up they were able to use their weapons without any further training. When practising, they kept up a continual noise, and if an unusually successful hit was made the thrower uttered a cry of exultation.

Boys above the age of nine or ten years were fond of sham fighting with sticks. They stood in couples, each with a foot advanced to meet that of his antagonist, and with a cudgel elevated in the right hand. Each fixed his eye upon the eye of his opponent, and sought to ward off blows as well as to inflict them. In these contests pretty hard strokes were sometimes given and received with the utmost good humour.

A game of which they were very fond was an imitation hunt. In this, one of them represented a wild animal of some kind, a second acted as a hunter, and the others took the part of dogs in pursuit. A space was marked off, within which the one chased was allowed to take breath, when he was said to be in the bush. He tried to imitate as closely as possible the animal he was representing. Thus if he was an antelope he simply ran, but if he was a lion he stood and fought.

The calves of the kraal were under the care of the boys, and a good deal of time was passed in training them to run and to obey signals made by whistling. The boys mounted them when they were eighteen months or two years old, and raced about upon their backs. When the boys were engaged in any sport, one of the number was selected by lot to tend the calves. As many blades of grass as there were boys were taken, and a knot was made on the end of one of them. The biggest boy held the blades between the fingers and thumb of his closed

hand, and whoever drew the blade with the knot had to act as herd.

They had also a simple game called hide and look for, exactly like our own. As a training for the eye and hand nothing could be better than their method of playing with little round pebbles. Each boy had a certain number, which he threw into the air one after another, catching them on his hand by turns as they fell, and throwing them up again before any touched the ground. He who could keep the whole longest in the air was the winner. Or they would try who could keep the greatest number in the air at once.

If they chanced to be disinclined for active exercise, they amused themselves by moulding clay into little images of cattle, or by making puzzles with strings. Some of them were skilful in forming knots with thongs and pieces of wood, which taxed the ingenuity of others to undo. The cleverest of them sometimes practised tricks of deception with pebbles. They were so sharp that although one was sure that he actually saw the pebble taken into the right hand, that hand when opened would be found empty, and it would be contained in the left, or perhaps it would be exhibited somewhere else.

The above comprised the common outdoor sports of boys up to the age of fourteen or fifteen years. At that time of life they usually began to practise the different dances which they would be required to take part in when they became men. These dances differed from one another almost as much as those practised by Europeans.

The commonest indoor game of the extreme southern tribes at the present time is the *iceya*, but this is of Hottentot origin, so need not be described here. A game of Bantu children everywhere was the *imfumba*. One of the players took a pebble or any other small substance in his hands, and pretended to place it in the hands of the others, who were seated in a circle around him. He might really give it to one of them, or he might keep it himself. One after another then guessed in whose possession it was. A variation of this game was played by men in rows of holes in the ground, but it was much more complicated.

Another common indoor game of children was called *cumbulele*. Three or four little ones stood with their closed hands on top of each other, so as to form a column. They sang *cumbulele*, *cumbulele*, *pangalala*, and at the last *la* they drew their hands back sharply, each one pinching with his thumb nail the hand above.

Toys as playthings were few in number, and were almost confined to clay oxen, wooden darts, bows and arrows, and the *nodiwu*. This was a piece of wood about six or eight inches long, an inch and a half or two inches wide, and an eighth or a quarter of an inch thick in the middle. Towards the edges it was bevelled off, so that the surface was convex, or consisted of two inclined planes. At one end it had a thong attached to it by which it was whirled rapidly round. The other end of the thong was usually fastened to a small round piece of wood used as a handle. The *nodiwu*, when whirled round, gave forth a noise that could be heard at a considerable distance. Besides the use which it was put to by the lads, when a little child was crying inside a hut, its mother or nurse would sometimes get a boy to make a noise with it outside, and then induce the child to be still by pretending that a monster was coming to devour it. There was a kind of superstition connected with the *nodiwu*, that playing with it invited a gale of wind. Men would, on that account, often prevent boys from using it when they desired calm weather for any purpose. It was much in evidence when the millet crops were ripening, and women and children were engaged from early dawn until darkness set in keeping the birds away. Little stages were then erected in the gardens, and on the appearance of a flock of finches each watcher shouted, clapped hands, whirled a *nodiwu*, or otherwise made as much noise as possible.

The form of greeting when people met varied greatly among the tribes. In the north clapping hands was the commonest form, accompanied by prostration of an inferior before a superior. "I see you" was the expression used by others on the coast. Among some of the interior tribes one person on meeting another asked the question "what are you eating?" and received as a conventional reply "nothing at all." In the south, on meeting

a chief the salutation was ah! There was no general custom observed in this respect by all the branches of the race.

This was the condition of the Bantu at the beginning of the sixteenth century, when Europeans became acquainted with a section of the race, and it is the condition of the great majority of them to-day, except where their customs have been modified by the authority or influence of white people. The opinion of those who have most to do with them now—four hundred years after their first contact with Caucasian civilisation—is that an occasional individual is capable of rising to a high standard, but that the great mass shows little aptitude for European culture. In mission schools children of early age are found to keep pace with those of white parents. In some respects, indeed, they are the higher of the two. Deprived of all extraneous aid, a Bantu child is able to devise means for supporting life at a much earlier age than a European child. But while the European youth is still developing his powers, the Bantu youth in most instances is found unable to make further progress. His intellect has become sluggish, and he exhibits a decided repugnance, if not an incapacity, to learn anything more. The growth of his mind, which at first promised so much, has ceased just at that stage when the mind of the European begins to display the greatest vigour.

Numerous individuals, however, have emerged from the mass, and have shown abilities of no mean order. A score of ministers of religion might now be named as earnest, intelligent, and devoted to their calling as average Europeans. Masters of primary schools, clerks, and interpreters, fairly well qualified for their duties, are by no means rare. One individual of this race has translated Bunyan's *Pilgrim's Progress* into the dialect of the Xosa tribe, and the translation is as faithful and expressive as any that have been made in the languages of Europe. Plaintive tunes, such as the converts at mission stations love to sing, have been composed by another for a considerable number of hymns and songs in the same dialect. Still another edits a newspaper, and shows that he has an intelligent grasp of political questions.

As mechanics they do not succeed so well, though an individual here and there shows an aptitude for working with iron. No one among them has invented or improved a useful implement since white men first became acquainted with them. And the strong desire of much the greater number is to live as closely like their ancestors as the altered circumstances of the country will permit, to make use of a few of the white man's simplest conveniences and of his protection against their enemies, but to avoid his habits and shut out his ideas. Compared with Europeans, their adults are commonly children in imagination and in simplicity of belief, though not unfrequently one may have the mental faculties of a full-grown man.



TERRITORY OCCUPIED BY DIFFERENT RACES IN SOUTH AFRICA IN 1500,
AS ACCURATELY AS CAN BE ASCERTAINED.

[MUST BE REGARDED AS ONLY APPROXIMATE.]

CHAPTER V.

ASIATIC IMMIGRANTS IN SOUTH-EASTERN AFRICA.

At some unknown period in the past, probably many centuries before the commencement of the Christian era, people more civilised than the Bantu, but still very far from reaching the level of modern Europeans, made their appearance on the central tableland of Africa south of the Zambesi. They were Asiatics, but of what nationality is uncertain. It is indeed possible, if not probable, that they came from the great commercial city of Tyre on the eastern shore of the Mediterranean sea, and that in holy scripture there is an account of them. The conditions mentioned of those fleets that went down the Red sea to Ophir in the time of Solomon are perfectly applicable to voyages to the mouths of the Zambesi or to Sofala, and the articles—gold, silver, precious stones, almug trees, ivory, apes, and peacocks—with which they returned are all found in South-Eastern Africa, if by almug trees ebony or some other very hard wood is meant, by precious stones pearls, and by peacocks the bustards that to-day are called wilde pauwen (wild peacocks) by the Dutch colonists.*

Mr. J. Theodore Bent, an eminent archæologist, who spent a portion of the year 1891 in examining the ruins of massive buildings in the country, came to the opinion, however, that

* The name of the bird given in the Bible is said, however, to be of Tamil origin, and to be used for the peacock (*pavo cristatus*) at the present day in Ceylon. This appears to be the greatest impediment to the supposition that the Ophir of scripture is the Rhodesia of to-day, unless there was intercourse between Eastern Africa and Southern India in those early times, in which case an African bird might have received from strangers a Dravidian name.

the men who constructed them were probably Sabæans from Southern Arabia.* Be that as it may, the intruders must have come down in vessels to some part of the coast, and then gone inland, for no traces of them have been found north of the Zambesi.

They erected buildings of dressed stone without cement or mortar, some of considerable size, the ruins of which excite the wonder of all who see them. From their position and form there can be no doubt that most of the buildings were constructed as forts, by means of which the foreigners could dominate the earlier inhabitants of the country. At least one, however, is pronounced by Mr. Bent to have been exclusively a temple, and several others appear to have been combined fortresses and places of worship. The temple at the place now termed the Great Zimbabwe, in latitude $20^{\circ} 16' 30''$ south, longitude $31^{\circ} 10' 10''$ east, fourteen miles from the present township of Victoria, was elliptical in form, two hundred and eighty feet in its greatest length, and was built of granite blocks dressed to about double the size of ordinary bricks. The greatest height of the wall still standing is thirty-five feet, and its thickness varies from sixteen feet two inches to five feet. The only ornamentation consists of two courses of stone laid in oblique positions in contrary directions along a fourth part of the wall, but in some other structures courses of outer stones were laid about two inches apart for the same purpose. These ornamentations are always on the south-eastern faces of the buildings, and lines drawn from the centres of the structures through the entrances point to the sun rising or setting at the time of the solstices.

The labour required for the erection of such a building as the temple at Great Zimbabwe, or of the fortress on the hill beside it, would be enormous at the present day; what then must it have been at a time when mechanical appliances such as are now in common use were unknown? But this was

* See his very interesting volume *The Ruined Cities of Mashonaland, with a Chapter on the Orientation and Mensuration of the Temples* by R. M. W. Swan, published in London in 1892, with several subsequent editions.

only one of a very large number of sites similarly, though not so massively, built upon over the whole extent of country between the Zambesi and Limpopo rivers.

The civilisation of the builders was not of a high order, however, for these structures were not perfectly regular in form, nor were any of the walls absolutely perpendicular or of equal thickness throughout. The architects were not sufficiently refined to appreciate mathematical correctness of shape or finish. The masonry in some of the buildings, which are believed to be the oldest, was much superior to that in others, the courses being far more regular. This shows that decadence took place, which is easily accounted for by the supposition, amounting almost to a certainty, that a mixture of blood with that of the Bantu was in progress from the outset.

A large solid tower in the temple at Great Zimbabwe, supposed to have been a phallus when perfect, and numerous stone phalli found in the ruins show the nature of at least one branch of the religion of the intruders, while from peculiarities in the buildings sidereal worship is supposed to have formed another. There is no trace of either of these systems in the religion of the Bantu now, from which circumstance it might be concluded that the blood of the Asiatic immigrants does not flow in the veins of the present inhabitants of the country, if it was not certain that ancestor worship has in another instance to be related elsewhere entirely driven out a foreign creed adopted for a time by a section of the people.

Figures of birds and other animals, rudely carved in a soapstone which when quarried was almost as soft as moistened clay but which hardened upon exposure to the air, exhibit the extent of the knowledge possessed by these people of the art of sculpture. Smelting furnaces, an ingot mould, crucibles, fragments of soapstone bowls, bits of excellent pottery, and beads, tacks, and thin plates of gold have been found in the soil at the ruins. The thin plates or leaves of gold in little squares of uniform size were intended to overlay wood, perhaps the ceilings and ornaments of grand buildings in the ancient world, and the wedge shaped tacks were for fastening them on.

The object of the intrusion of the Asiatics was to obtain gold, and for this purpose they carried on mining operations over an immense tract of country. They were sufficiently skilful to be able to sink pits and run underground galleries along reefs, but they were obliged to cease operations when water was reached, as they had no means except buckets and human labour for keeping the excavations dry. The quantity of a reef that could be removed depended thus entirely upon its position, and where drainage was good considerable depths were reached.

With the appliances at their disposal there was only one way in which this kind of mining could be carried on profitably, for a vast amount of labour needed to be expended in bringing the gold bearing rock to the surface of the ground, there crushing it to powder, and then washing the dust to obtain less than an ounce of metal from a ton of quartz, though the value of that metal relatively to other articles must then have been very much greater than it is now. With the Bantu population reduced to a condition of slavery, the men employed in extracting and crushing ore and the women in raising food, it was possible to make gold mining profitable, and it may be taken for certain that this was the condition of things in those far-off times in the territory called Eastern Rhodesia to-day.

As little as possible was left by the enterprising immigrants to chance. Dry seasons were guarded against by a system of irrigation pronounced by competent authorities from its remains to have been almost as perfect as could be devised at the present day, so that abundance of grain could always be relied upon, for here, as everywhere else in the country, only water was needed to make the soil as productive as any in the world. At first sight it might seem that to conserve it nothing more was necessary than to construct dams across the courses of streams, but so violent were the floods in the rainy season that unless the dams were immensely strong they would certainly be swept away. Under such circumstances artificial reservoirs were requisite, into which water could be led when the streams were full, and from which it could be drawn into furrows for

irrigating purposes when dry weather set in. Such reservoirs required skill and much labour to construct and afterwards to preserve in order. This part of Africa must therefore have presented a scene of industry in building, mining, and cultivation of the soil that is not easy to picture by those who know it at the beginning of the twentieth century of the Christian era. It is possible, however, that the whole of the vast territory from the Zambesi to the Limpopo was not occupied at the same time, but that sections of it were successively brought under the dominion of the Asiatic rulers.

How long a connection was kept open between the country from which the strangers came and that into which they had made their way there are no means of determining, but from the vast extent of their building and mining operations it seems likely to have extended over many centuries. From the first the intruders, being unaccompanied by females of their own race, would have taken to themselves harems of native women, and thus gradually a considerable class of mixed breeds must have arisen. These, as in all such cases, would have been lower in intellect, enterprise, and morality than their fathers, but they would have been unable to form a perfectly separate caste, because connection with one or other of the races from which they sprang was needed to create a balance of blood on one side, without which they must have died out. Half-breeds of negroes and Europeans or negroes and Asiatics are incapable of producing offspring among themselves alone for many generations. The males most likely would ally themselves with the Bantu, and the females with the ruling people, as is usual at present under similar conditions farther north on the coast. At last something occurred to prevent the arrival of any more foreigners, communication by sea with the country they had come from ceased, and then a complete fusion of blood between those in South Africa and the Bantu took place. This is of course largely conjectural, but everything that can be observed in connection with the subject points in that direction.

Gold mining was not carried on to any large extent after

the cessation of intercourse with the country from which the promoters of it had come, but the art was never entirely lost, and quartz crushing continued on a small scale down to the beginning of the nineteenth century. Far the greater portion of the valuable metal obtained during the traditional and historical period, however, has been obtained from alluvial washing. When the massive buildings were abandoned, material accumulated within their walls, in which at length great trees sprang up and helped to complete the ruin. The pits by which the mines were reached became filled, and the irrigation works were all but completely obliterated. The Bantu, though improved by the mixture of foreign blood, when left to themselves without control or guidance reverted to their normal condition.

At the beginning of the sixteenth century, when South-Eastern Africa was first visited by the Portuguese, all traditions concerning the ancient builders and miners had died out, and other Asiatics who had arrived at a much later period were in possession of the trade of the country, though not of its soil, or of dominion over its inhabitants. From the Moors, as they termed these people, the Portuguese learned of the existence of extensive ruins inland, which they do not appear at any time to have visited themselves, for the descriptions given by their writers are very far from being correct. Thus the temple at Great Zimbabwe, according to their accounts, was a square building, not circular as it really is, and they stated that there was an inscription over one of its doors which no Arabic scholar could decipher, whereas not only is there no such inscription now, but no indication of a stone having been removed on which one could have been displayed at any time.

The Asiatics who were found trading and occupying various stations along the coast were Arabs and Persians, and as they possessed a literature and preserved records of their original settlements and subsequent transactions, the Portuguese writers into whose hands these records came were able to give a very clear account, not only of their condition in the early years of the sixteenth century, but of their previous history and

dealings with the Bantu inhabitants. That history was as follows :—

A certain man named Zaide, great-grandson of Ali, nephew and son-in-law of Mohamed, maintained religious opinions that were not in accordance with the koran as interpreted by the Arabian teachers, and was therefore banished from his home. With his adherents, who from him were termed the Emozaidi, he passed over to the African coast, and formed some temporary settlements of no great importance along it. These people were of a roving disposition, and gradually moved southward, avoiding conflicts with the natives but incorporating many of them, until in course of time they became hardly distinguishable from Africans except by the profession of a form of the Mohamedan creed and a somewhat higher way of living. The trading instinct of the Arabs led them, however, to carry on a petty commerce in gold and probably in other productions of the country. How far south the Emozaidi eventually wandered cannot be ascertained with precision, but some of them appear to have reached the equator before the next stream of immigration set in.

This was from Central Arabia, and consisted of a number of families driven out by the oppression of a neighbouring sheik. In three vessels they crossed over to the African coast, and founded first the town of Magadosho, and subsequently that of Brava, both not far north of the equator. In time Magadosho became a place of importance, various subordinate settlements were made to the southward, and its trade grew to large proportions. The Emozaidi, who were regarded as heretics by these later immigrants, would not submit to their authority, and were driven inland and forced into still closer connection than before with the natives of Africa. They became the wandering traders of the interior, the people who collected the products of the country and conveyed them to the coast for sale.

A vessel belonging to Magadosho, having been driven from her course by a storm, put into the port of Sofala, where her crew learned that gold was to be obtained in trade. This led

to a small settlement of Arabs at that place, and to a knowledge of the coast as far as Cape Correntes.

Rather more than seventy years elapsed after the founding of Magadosho and Brava when, towards the close of the fourth century of the Mohamedan era, that is about the time of the Norman conquest of England, another band of strangers settled on the East African seaboard. A ruler of Shiraz in Persia died, leaving seven sons, one of whom, named Ali, was despised by his brothers on account of his mother having been an Abyssinian slave. He was a man of energy and ability, however, so to avoid insult and wrong he resolved to remove to some distant land. With his family and a few followers he embarked in two vessels at the island of Ormuz, and sailed to Magadosho. The Persians and the Arabs were alike followers of the creed of Mohamed, and professed to hold the koran as their guide, but they formed rival sects, and at that time regarded each other with great bitterness. Ali could not settle at or near Magadosho therefore, so he steered down the coast in search of a place where he could build a town of his own, free of the control of every one else.

Such a place he found at Kilwa, the Quiloa of the Portuguese. The island was occupied by blacks, but they were willing to sell their right to it, which Ali purchased for a quantity of cloth, when they removed to the mainland. He then formed a settlement, and constructed fortifications sufficiently strong for defence against the African natives and the Arabs higher up the coast who were unfriendly towards him. Whether the island had a name before is not known: he called it Kilwa. Admirably situated for commerce, the settlement attracted immigrants and grew rapidly, so that even in Ali's lifetime it was able to send out a colony to occupy the island of Mafia not far to the northward. Successively different settlements were formed or those founded by the Arabs were conquered, until in course of time Kilwa, notwithstanding various civil wars, became not only the most important commercial station, but the ruling town on the East African coast.

At first the houses were built of wood and clay, but these

were afterwards replaced by others of stone and mortar, with flat roofs or terraces which could be used for the same purposes as stoeps in the Cape Colony in our day. The streets between the rows of houses were very narrow, mere alleys in fact, but in the outskirts were large gardens planted with various kinds of vegetables, in which grew also palms and different trees of the orange species. In front of the town, close to the harbour, was the residence of the ruler, which was built to serve also as a fortress, and was ornamented with towers and turrets. The mosques were adorned with minarets, so that, as looked upon from the sea, Kilwa presented the appearance of a beautiful and stately eastern town.

There were now three distinct communities of Asiatic origin on the East African coast: the Emozaidi, deemed by both the others to be heretics, the orthodox Arabs, holding one form of the Mohamedan faith, and the Persians, holding another. They were all at variance, and strife between them was constant. This is the key to their easy conquest by the Portuguese in later times. They termed the Bantu inhabitants of the mainland Kaffirs, that is infidels, an epithet adopted by modern Europeans and still in use. None of them, however, scrupled to take women of that race into their harems, and thus at all their settlements the number of mixed breeds was large. At the commencement of the sixteenth century the majority of those who called themselves Arabs, including the descendants of the Persian immigrants, were undistinguishable in colour and features from the ordinary Bantu. It followed that while those in whom the Asiatic blood was predominant were strict Mohamedans, the others were almost indifferent in matters concerning that religion.

Sofala was wrested from Magadosho by the people of Kilwa in the time of Soleiman, ninth successor of Ali, and with it a trade in ivory and gold was secured which greatly enriched the conquerors and enabled them to extend their power. In the zenith of its prosperity Kilwa was mistress of Melinde and Sofala on the mainland, the islands of Mombasa, Pemba, Zanzibar, Mafia, Comoro, Mozambique, and many others of less

note, various stations on the coast of Madagascar, and numerous small trading posts along the African shore as far south as Cape Correntes, beyond which no vessel in those times ever passed. But owing to internal strife and perpetual feuds among the different communities, all of these places except Mozambique were lost before the beginning of the sixteenth century, and each of the others had become a petty but sovereign state.

The forty-third ruler of Kilwa after Ali was named Abraham,* and it was he who held the government when the Portuguese arrived on the coast. He did not rule, however, by right of descent, but had seized the supreme authority under pretence of keeping it in trust for an absent heir. On this account he was conceded no higher title than that of Emir. When he thus usurped the administration of Kilwa a man named Isuf† was governor of Sofala, having received that appointment many years before. This Isuf was held in high esteem for ability and valour, and as he did not choose to acknowledge Emir Abraham as a superior, he made himself independent and opened his port to the trade of Melinde and other towns on the coast.

The Asiatic communities on the African seaboard existed almost entirely by commerce. Except at Pemba, Zanzibar, and one or two other places they did not carry on agriculture to any large extent, though they introduced various fruit-trees and the cultivation of rice and probably a few foreign vegetables among the Bantu. The small islands were not adapted for the growth of grain, and the supplies of food needed by the inhabitants of such towns as Kilwa and Mombasa could be obtained without difficulty in exchange for such wares as they had to barter. One product of the ground, however, they paid particular attention to. That was the cocoa palm, without which they could not have existed as they did. From its fruit they obtained not only an agreeable article of diet, but a fibre of the greatest utility; from its leaves material for mats and thatching; and from its trunk timber for the habitations of

* Habrahemo according to Barros, Abraemo according to De Goes.

† Yçuf according to Barros, Çufc according to Castanheda and De Goes.

the poorer classes, masts and spars for their vessels, and wood for a great variety of other purposes. There was no part of this valuable tree of which some use could not be made.

They built vessels adapted for the navigation of the upper part of the Indian sea, where the monsoons blow regularly at different periods of the year from the east and from the west, though in them they could not venture on such stormy waters as those south of Cape Correntes. In these vessels no iron was used, the planks being fastened to the timbers with wooden treenails, and all the parts sewed or bound together with cord of coir. As they did not use saws, the planks were formed by splitting the trunks of trees down the centre, and then trimming each block with an axe, a tedious and clumsy process, in which much timber was lost. The sails were of close and strong matting, and the standing and running gear alike was made of coir. The largest of these vessels—now called dows—were used for crossing over to the coasts of Arabia, Persia, and Hindostan; those next in size—which were called pangayos by the first Europeans who saw them—for the most important part of the home trade; and the smallest—termed zambucos and luzios—for communicating between the settlements, conveying cargoes up and down the mouths of the Zambesi, and other purposes where heavy tonnage was not needed. The zambucos and luzios, indeed, were nothing more than large boats, half decked, and commonly provided with awnings. In shallow places, as in rivers, they were propelled with poles.

The pilots, called malemos, who conducted the vessels to foreign ports, were remarkably expert. Steering across to the coast of Hindostan, for instance, they seldom failed to make the land within a very few miles of the place they were bound to. They determined the latitude by means of measuring the angular altitude of certain stars when on the meridian, for which purpose they used an instrument which they regarded as superior to that by which the first Portuguese navigators in those seas found their way. Of any other method of determining longitudes than by dead reckoning, however, they were as ignorant as all the rest of the world at that time.

The commerce carried on by these people with distant lands was indeed small when compared with that which passed from India either up the Persian gulf and thence by caravans to the shore of the Mediterranean, or up the Red sea, then overland to Cairo, and down the Nile to Alexandria, where the produce of the East was obtained by the Venetians to be distributed over Europe; but for Africa it was considerable, and it was not subject to much fluctuation.

From India they obtained silks, spices, and other articles of luxury for the use of their own people of pure or nearly pure Asiatic blood, and cotton cloth and beads for trade with the Bantu; from Arabia and Persia rich fabrics, dates, scimitars, large sheathed daggers, and various other kinds of merchandise. Every man, no matter how black, who claimed to be a Mohamedan, wore at least a turban and a loin cloth, and carried a weapon of some kind on his person. The men of rank and wealth, who were of lighter colour, dressed in gorgeous robes of velvet, silk, or cotton, had sandals on their feet, and at their sides ornamented scimitars of finely tempered steel. The women naturally were clothed more or less richly according to the position of their parents and husbands, and they were particularly fond of trinkets. Every article of dress or adornment, all glassware, the best of the furniture of every description, the choicest weapons, and various luxuries of diet were imported from abroad.

With pieces of calico to be used as loin-cloths, beads, and ornaments of trifling value, the traders went among the Bantu on the mainland. Ingratiating themselves with the chiefs by means of presents, they induced those despots to send out men, here to hunt elephants, there to wash the soil for gold, and so forth. Time was to them of less importance than to Europeans, and their mode of living was so nearly like that of the native Africans that they could reside or travel about without discomfort where white men could hardly have existed. Thus the trade that they carried on was much greater in quantity than that of their Portuguese successors, though its exact amount cannot be ascertained. Upon their wares they

obtained enormous profits. They received in exchange gold, ivory, pearls from the oyster beds at the Bazaruta islands, strips of hippopotamus hide, gum, and ambergris washed up on the coast, with which they carried on their foreign commerce; and millet, rice, cattle, poultry, and honey, which they needed for home consumption.

Commerce was open to any one who chose to engage in it, but practically was confined to the pure Asiatics, who employed the mixed breeds as their agents in conducting the inland barter, working the vessels, and performing the rough labour of every kind. The governments, Arab, Persian, and Bantu alike, derived a revenue from the trade that to-day seems extortionate. When an elephant was killed, the tusk next the ground belonged to the chief, and when the upper one was sold he took about half the proceeds. On all other articles disposed of by his subjects, his share was about the same proportion, besides which the traders on the other side were obliged to make him large presents before commencing to barter. When Mombasa after the independence of Isuf was able to trade with Sofala, an export duty of rather over fifty per cent was levied on the merchandise for the benefit of the government of that town. At Kilwa any one desiring to trade with Sofala was obliged to pay about seventy per cent of the value of the goods before leaving the port, and on arrival at his destination one-seventh of what was left. Upon his return he paid a duty of five per cent of the gold he had acquired. The duty on ivory brought to Kilwa was very heavy, so that in fact the government obtained a large proportion of the profits on commerce.

On the islands the governments of the Asiatics were not only independent, but all other authority was excluded, and on some of them fortifications were erected, as well as mosques and houses of stone. But on the mainland south of Kilwa, it was different. Here the mixed breeds were permitted by Bantu chiefs to reside for purposes of trade, but they were by no means lords of the country. The sheiks ruled their own people, but no others, like native clans which are often

found intermingled, whose idea of government is tribal rather than territorial. They were obliged to make the Bantu rulers large presents every year for the privilege of living and trading in the country, which presents may be regarded rather as rent for the ground and license fees than as tribute. Under these circumstances they did not construct any buildings of stone.

The pure Asiatic settlers on the African coast were grave and dignified, though courteous in demeanour. They were as hospitable as any people in the world, but they were attached to their ancestral customs, and keenly resented anything like an affront. They were enterprising, though so conservative in their ideas that they were incapable of making what Europeans would term rapid progress in civilisation. As superstitious as their Bantu neighbours, they especially regarded dreams as figuratively foreshowing events, and he was regarded as wise who pretended to be able to interpret them. The tombs of men celebrated for piety were places of ordinary pilgrimage, but every one endeavoured when in the prime of life to visit the city of Mecca in Arabia, thereby to obtain the highly honoured title of hadji.

The mixed breeds, who formed the great bulk of the nominally Mohamedan population, had all the superstitions of both the races from which they were descended. They would not venture to sea on a coasting voyage if one among them had an adverse dream, or without making an offering, if only of a shred of calico or a piece of coir cord, at the tomb of some holy man. They believed that the winds could be charmed to rise or fall, that the pangayos were subject to bewitchment, that even the creatures of the sea could be laid under spells. They lived in short in the atmosphere of the *Arabian Nights*, darkened by the gloom of Bantu fear of malignant sorcery.

Coming down the eastern coast of Africa in the year 1500, the principal Mohamedan settlements and trading stations were in geographical order as follows:—

Magadosho,* in latitude 2° 2' north of the equator. The

* Various spelt in books and on charts at present as well as in olden times Magadoxo, Magadaxo, Magadosho, Mogdishu, and Mukdeesha.

town was on the coast of the mainland, partly built upon an eminence rising to a height of about forty feet above a sandy plain. It contained several mosques and many stone houses with flat roofs. In front, at no great distance from the shore and parallel with it, was a coral reef four or five miles in length, which protected the channel within from the fury of the sea. At low spring tides the water in the channel was only two fathoms in depth, but that was sufficient for the dows used in the Indian trade. There was no other port.

Brava, in latitude $1^{\circ} 7'$ north, was also built on the coast of the mainland. It stood on an eminence about a hundred feet above the beach, and was enclosed with a wall. The town was well built, and was governed as an aristocratic republic, the only one of the kind on the coast. The port somewhat resembled that of Magaloshô, being a channel along the shore partly protected by islets and reefs, but was more exposed to heavy rollers from the sea.

Melinde,* in latitude $3^{\circ} 15'$ south of the equator, situated on the coast of the mainland, was also a well-built town. Adjoining it was an extensive and fertile plain, covered with beautiful gardens and groves, in which flourished fruit trees of various kinds, principally orange and lemon. To gain this advantage the town was built some distance from the nearest anchorage, which itself was far from safe, being a roadstead protected to some extent by a reef, but made dangerous by numerous shoals. It possessed, however, in a narrow rocky peninsula extending into the sea an excellent natural pier for landing cargo from boats.

Mombasa, on a coral island about three miles long by two broad, was situated in the estuary of the Barretté river, in latitude $4^{\circ} 4'$ south. The island was like a huge fortress, standing from forty to sixty feet out of the water and presenting steep cliffs of madrepore on the seaward side. It possessed one of the best natural harbours in the world, easily accessible at all times. On each side the passage between the island and the banks of the estuary was broad and deep, though winding, and when in

* Variouslly spelt Melinde, Melinda, Maleenda, and Malindi,

them or in the fine sheet of water to which they led a vessel was perfectly sheltered. This sheet of water could only be reached by large vessels through the northern strait, because a submerged reef stretched across the inner end of the other, and at low tide formed a ford to the mainland. The town was built along the steep shore of the northern passage, not far from the sea, and was next to Kilwa the most celebrated on the coast. The houses were of stone, so well constructed that the first Europeans who saw them compared them favourably with residences in Spain. Mombasa, owing to its excellent site and to the prevalence of sea breezes, was less troubled with fever than any other settlement on that part of the coast.

Pemba, a coral island, rising in the highest part to three hundred feet above the level of the sea, was thirty-eight miles in extreme length by thirteen in width. It was about eighteen miles from the mainland, with a clear passage for ships inside, though coral reefs abounded near the shore. The island was fertile, and produced large quantities of provisions, particularly rice, for exportation. The principal Arab settlement on it was in latitude 5° 25' south.

Zanzibar, not far south of Pemba, was an island similar in every respect, though larger, being forty-seven miles in extreme length by twenty miles in breadth. It rose to a height of four hundred and forty feet above the level of the sea. The principal Arab town, from which the island took its name, was on the western side, in latitude 6° 3' south. The anchorage in front of it was good and capacious, and there were many secure harbours among the islets and reefs in the channel between it and the mainland. Here were built the greater number of the vessels used in the Indian and the coasting trade, and from the island considerable quantities of provisions were exported.

Mafia,* a coral island rising abruptly from a great depth of water, lay about nine miles from the mainland. This island was about twenty-seven miles in length by nine in extreme breadth, between 7° 38' and 8° south latitude. It was of much less importance than either Zanzibar or Pemba.

* Written also Monfia and Monfeea.

Kilwa, a low coral island, rather over four miles in length by two in breadth, rising on the northern side to forty-five feet above the sea level, was set like an arrow in a drawn bow in the estuary of the Mavudyi river. It lay in latitude $8^{\circ} 57'$ south. With the sea in front, a strait on each side, and a sheet of water extending ten or twelve miles beyond its inner extremity, it was a very strong position. As at Mombasa, the southern strait was crossed at its far end by a reef, along which access to the mainland could be had at low water. This strait was interspersed with islets, and made a capacious harbour, admirably adapted for shipping, but that on the northern side of the island was difficult to navigate on account of its containing numerous reefs and sand banks.

Passing south of Cape Delgado, in latitude $10^{\circ} 40'$, a chain of coral islets and reefs parallel to the coast at a distance of eight to thirteen miles, and extending one hundred and seventeen miles along it, was to be seen. The principal islet was termed Kerimba, or Querimba, and from it the whole group was named. Next in importance was Ibo. Most of the others were uninhabited, being mere rocks rising from the sea. Along the strait within were numerous harbours for ships.

The northern extremity of the Mozambique channel has now been reached, and halfway across it lay the Comoro islands, all of volcanic origin. The principal of these were named Comoro, Johanna, Mohilla, and Mayotta, but there were many smaller in size. These islands were also possessed by the Arabs, who made use of them as convenient stopping places on their way to the great Island of the Moon, which we term Madagascar.

Keeping down the African coast, an inlet about five miles and a half across and six in depth was reached, in latitude 15° south. Into its inner end ran three streamlets, but of inconsiderable size. Lying across the centre of the mouth of the inlet, within a line joining its two outer points, was a low coral island, about a mile and a half in length and four hundred yards in breadth, named Mozambique. About three miles farther out in the sea were two others, similar in formation, then uninhabited, one of which is now called Saint George and the other

Saint Jago. Behind Mozambique was a spacious harbour, easily accessible and perfectly sheltered. At long intervals indeed a furious cyclone would sweep over it and cause great destruction, but the same could be said of any part of that coast and sea. Such a position as the island of Mozambique could not escape the observation of the Mohamedans, though it had not the advantages of Kilwa or Mombasa. The island itself produced nothing, not even drinking water. On the northern shore of the inlet, since termed Cabaceira, the ground was fertile, but it was exposed to irruptions of the Bantu inhabitants, who were generally hostile. So Mozambique never rose to be more than a dependency of Kilwa, a mere halfway station for vessels bound up or down the coast. Its Mohamedan occupants had their gardens and cocoa nut groves on the mainland, but could not always depend upon gathering their produce.

The Angosha* islands lay off the mouth of the Angosha river, between latitude 16° and $16^{\circ} 40'$ south. The river was three miles wide at the bar, and could be ascended by boats nearly one hundred and fifty miles, which circumstance gave to the six coral islets off its entrance a value they would not have had in another position. There was a good roadstead between the bar of the river and the island Mafamede, which was a mere crown of sand on a coral reef seven or eight feet above sea level.

The Primeiras islands were nothing more than a row of coral hummocks extending northward from latitude $17^{\circ} 18'$ in a line parallel with the coast. In the channel between them and the mainland there were places where a pangayo could find shelter.

At Mozambique the direction of the coast line had changed from nearly north and south to north-east and south-west, and the aspect of the land had altered also. Thence to Cape Correntes as far as the eye could reach nothing was visible but a low flat tract, bordered along the sea by sand hills from fifty to six hundred feet high, with here and there a dark-coloured rock. In latitude 18° south the mouth of the Kilimane, or Quilimane, river was reached. This was the northernmost of the several outlets of the great river Zambesi, which therefore

* Spelt also Angoxa, Angozha, and Angoche.

bounded the delta on that side. The other large outlets were the Luabo and the Kuama, but there were many smaller ones, a distance of a hundred miles separating the extreme southern from the extreme northern mouth, while the inland extremity of the delta, where the river began to fork, was over fifty miles in a straight line from the sea. In later years this whole tract of land and water was termed by the Portuguese the Rivers of Kuama, the largest of the islands in the delta bearing that name.

If an accurate survey of the delta and its streams had been made in any one year, in the next it would have been imperfect, and in a decade misleading, for two causes were constantly operating to alter the features of land and water. In the rainy season the Zambesi, which stretched nearly across the continent, poured down a flood bearing sand, soil, and gravel, which spread over great areas, blocked up old channels, tore away huge fragments of islands, and opened new passages in every direction. When the flood subsided, former landmarks were gone, and where vessels had sailed the year before sandflats alone were seen. The Kilimane arm in the year 1500 was the best entrance into the Zambesi during six months of the year, in 1900 its upper course is many feet higher than the bed of the great river farther inland, of which it is no longer regarded as an outlet. The other cause of change was the mangrove. This tree, with its gloomy dark-green foliage, grew only on the confines of land and water, where it spread out its roots like gigantic snakes, intertwining and retaining in their folds the ooze and slime that would otherwise have been borne away. Sand was blown up by the wind or deposited when the currents were gentle, vegetable mould accumulated, the inner line of the swamp became soil on which grass and herbs could grow, and the mangrove spread farther out to reclaim ever more and more land from the shallow water. So the floods washed away and reformed, and the mangrove bound together and extended, in the ever varying scene.

How far up the Zambesi the Mohamedans were accustomed to go cannot be ascertained with precision. They had a small settlement on its southern bank where the Portuguese village of

Sena now stands, about one hundred and forty miles from the sea, but it is doubtful whether they had any fixed post farther inland, though travelling traders probably penetrated the country to a great distance. About two hundred and thirty-five miles from the sea the great river passed through the Lupata gorge, a narrow cleft in the range that separates the interior plain from the coast belt, where the rapids were so strong that they may not have cared to go beyond them with their boats, though the Portuguese afterwards navigated the stream up to the Kebrabasa rapids, about twenty miles above Tete, or three hundred and twenty miles from the sea.

At the mouth of the Pungwe river, where Beira now stands, there was a very small Mohamedan trading settlement, perhaps not a permanent one, and only at best an outpost of Sofala.

Sofala, the most important station south of Kilwa, was in latitude $20^{\circ} 10'$. It was at the mouth of an estuary a mile and three quarters wide from the northern bank to an island named Inyansata, between which and the southern bank there was only a narrow and shallow stream when the tide was low. Across the entrance of the estuary was a shifting bar of sand, which prevented large vessels from crossing, and inside there were so many shoals that navigation was at all times dangerous. The land to a great distance was low and swampy, and the banks of the estuary were fringed with belts of mangrove, so that the place was a hotbed of fever and dysentery. Farther in the interior the stream was of no great size, but it was always bringing down material to add to the deposits of sand and mud above the bar. The sole redeeming feature was a high rise of tide, often nearly twenty feet at full moon, so that when the wind was fair it was accessible for any vessels then used in the Indian trade. Along the coast was a great shoal or bank like a submerged terrace, extending far into the sea, upon which the waves ran so high at times and the currents were so strong that the locality was greatly dreaded by the mariners of olden days. But all these drawbacks were disregarded in view of the fact that gold was to be obtained here in exchange for merchandise of little value.

At Sofala there were two villages: one close to the sea, on a sand flat forming the north-eastern point, contained about four hundred inhabitants; the other, a couple of miles higher up the bank of the estuary, also contained about four hundred residents. The sheik lived in the last named. His dwelling house was constructed of poles planted in the ground, between which wattles were woven and then plastered with clay. It was thatched, and contained several apartments, one of considerable size which could be used as a hall of state. The floor, like that of Bantu huts, was made of antheaps moistened and stamped. It was covered with mats, and the room occupied by the sheik was hung with silk, but was poorly furnished according to modern European ideas. This was the grandest dwelling house in Africa south of the Zambesi, indeed the only one of its size and form, in the first year of the sixteenth century.

The island of Chiloane* lay partly in the mouth of the Ingomiamo river, in latitude $20^{\circ} 37'$ south. The island was about six miles long by three wide, but a great part of it was a mangrove swamp. The channel into the Ingomiamo on the northern side of the island, now called Port Singune, was used as a harbour by an occasional pangayo or zambuco that put in to trade.

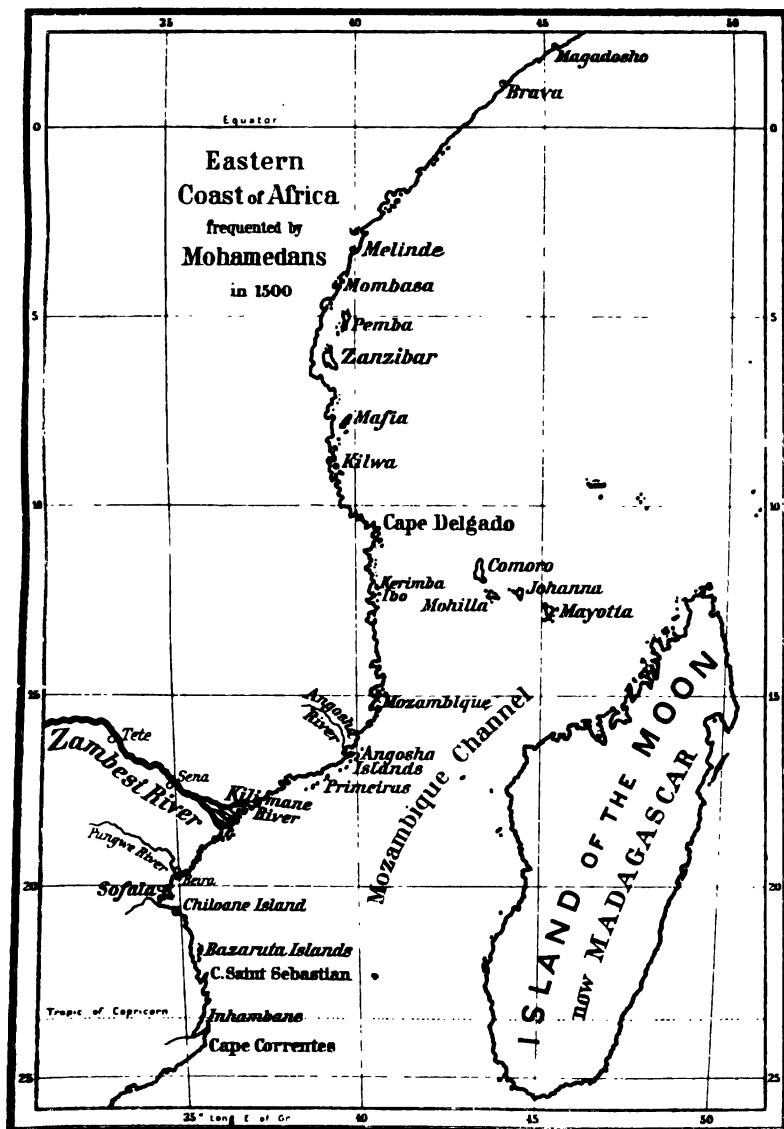
The Bazaruta islands were of much greater importance, for there were the pearl-oyster beds which yielded gems as much coveted by the Arabs and Persians as by the people of Europe and India. There were five islands in this group, stretching over thirty miles along the coast northward from the cape now called Saint Sebastian, which is in latitude $22^{\circ} 5'$ south. The principal island, from which the group takes its name, is eighteen miles in length.

The last place to the southward frequented by the Mohamedans was the river Nyambana, or Inhambane, the mouth of which is in latitude $23^{\circ} 45'$ south. They had a small settlement where the Portuguese village now stands, fourteen miles by the channel, though only eight in a direct line, above the bar. The river was easy of access, and formed an excellent harbour. It

* Variouslly spelt Chiluan, Chilwan, Chuluwan, Kiloane, &c.

was navigable for boats about five miles farther up than the settlement, which formed a good centre for collecting ivory, an article always in demand in India. This place was reputed to be the healthiest on the whole coast.

Beyond Cape Correntes, in latitude $24^{\circ} 4'$ south, the Arabs and Persians did not venture in their coir-sewn vessels. Here the Mozambique current, from which the cape has its present name, ran southward with great velocity, usually from one to three miles an hour, according to the force and direction of the wind, but often much faster. The cape had the reputation also of being a place of storms, where the regular monsoons of the north could no longer be depended upon, and where violent gusts from every quarter would almost surely destroy the mariners who should be so foolhardy as to brave them. The vivid Arab imagination further pictured danger of another kind, for this was the chosen home of those mermaids—believed in also by the Greeks of old—who lured unfortunate men to their doom. So Cape Correntes, with its real and fictitious perils, was the terminus of Mohamedan enterprise to the south, though there were men in Kilwa who sometimes wondered what was beyond it and half made up their minds to go over land and sea.



CHAPTER VI.

DISCOVERY OF AN OCEAN ROUTE TO INDIA.

THE discovery of an ocean route from Europe to India, followed by the establishment of the Portuguese as the preponderating power in the East, is one of the greatest events in the history of the world. It is not too much to say that every state of Central and Western Europe was affected by it. The time was critical, for the Turks were then menacing Christendom, and if they had secured a monopoly of the Indian trade their wealth and strength would have been so augmented that it is doubtful whether they might not have succeeded in entering Vienna in 1529. As yet the Moslem power was divided, for Egypt was still under the Mameluke rulers, and the greater portion of the Indian products that found their way to Europe was obtained by the Venetians at Alexandria. To that city they were conveyed in boats down the Nile from Cairo, after being carried by camels from the shore of the Red sea, whither they were brought by ships from the coast of Malabar. From this traffic Alexandria had thriven greatly, and from it too Venice,—whose citizens distributed over Europe the silk and cotton fabrics, pepper, and spices of the East,—had become wealthy and powerful. That portion of the Indian merchandise which was brought overland by caravans from the Persian gulf to the Mediterranean coast was under the control of the Turks, and a few years later, when in 1517 the sultan Selim overthrew the Mamelukes and made Egypt a province of his dominions, the whole would have been theirs if the Portuguese had not just in time forestalled them.

In the early years of the fifteenth century the Christian nations were little acquainted with distant countries, America and Australia were entirely unknown, Eastern Asia was very imperfectly laid down on the maps, and the greater part of Africa had never been explored. This continent might have terminated north of the equator, for anything that the most learned men in Europe knew to the contrary. The Portuguese were at this time the most adventurous seamen of the world, and they were the first to attempt to discover an ocean highway round Africa to the East. Under direction of a justly celebrated prince of their royal family, Henrique by name—known to us as Henry the Navigator—fleets were fitted out which gradually crept down the western coast until the shores of Senegambia were reached. In 1434 Cape Bojador was passed for the first time, in 1441 Cape Blanco was seen by Europeans, and in 1445 Cape Verde was rounded by Diniz Dias.

Then, until after the death of Prince Henrique—13th of November 1460—discovery practically ceased. The lucrative slave trade occupied the minds of the sea captains, and ships freighted with negroes taken captive in raids, or purchased from conquering chiefs, frequently entered the harbours of Portugal. The commerce in human flesh was regarded as highly meritorious, because it brought heathens to a knowledge of Christianity. But never has a mistake or a crime led to more disastrous results, for to the introduction of negroes as labourers in the southern provinces of Portugal the decline of the kingdom in power and importance is mainly due.

The exploring expeditions which Prince Henrique never ceased to encourage, but which the greed of those who were in his service had turned into slave hunting voyages, were resumed after his death. In 1461 the coast of the present republic of Liberia was reached, and in 1471 the equator was crossed. King João II, who ascended the throne in 1481, was as resolute as his grand-uncle the Navigator in endeavouring to discover an ocean road to India. He had not indeed any idea of the great consequences that would follow, his object being

simply to divert the eastern trade from Venice to Lisbon, which would be effected if an unbroken sea route could be found. In 1484 he sent out a fleet under Diogo Cam, which reached the mouth of the Congo, and in the following year the same officer made a greater advance than any previous explorer could boast of, for he pushed on southward as far as Cape Cross, where the marble pillar which he set up to mark the extent of his voyage remained standing more than four hundred years.

The next expedition sent in the same direction solved the secret concerning the extent of the African continent. It was under the chief command of an officer named Bartholomeu Dias, of whose previous career unfortunately nothing can now be ascertained except that he was a gentleman of the king's household and receiver of customs at Lisbon when the appointment was conferred upon him, and that he had at some former time taken part in exploring the coast. At the end of August 1486 he sailed from the Tagus with two vessels of about fifty tons each, according to the Portuguese measurement of the time, though they would probably be rated much higher now. He had also a small storeship with him, for previous expeditions had often been obliged to turn back from want of food.

The officers who were to serve under him were carefully selected, and were skilful in their professions. They were:—Leitão (probably a nickname) sailing master and Pedro d'Alquerque pilot of the flag ship; João Infante captain, João Grego sailing master, and Alvaro Martins pilot of the *São Pantaleão*; and Pedro Dias, brother of the commodore, captain, João Alves sailing master, and João de Santiago pilot of the storeship. On board the squadron were four negresses—convicts—from the coast of Guinea, who were to be set ashore at different places to make discoveries and report to the next white men they should see. This was a common practice at the time, the persons selected being criminals under sentence of death, who were glad to escape immediate execution by risking anything that might befall them in an unknown and barbarous country.

In this instance women were chosen, as it was considered likely they would be protected by the natives. It was hoped that through their means a powerful Christian prince called Prester John, who was believed to reside in the interior, might come to learn of the greatness of the Portuguese monarchy and that efforts were being made to reach him, so that he might send messengers to the coast to communicate with the explorers. King João and his courtiers believed that if this mythical Prester John could but be found, he would point out the way to India.

Dias, like all preceding explorers, kept close to the coast on his way southward. Somewhere near the equator he left the storeship with nine men to look after her, and then continued his course until he reached an inlet or small harbour with a group of islets at its entrance, the one now called Angra Pequena or Little Bay, but which he named Angra dos Ilheos, the Bay of the Islets. The latitude was believed to be 24° S., but in reality it was 26½°, so imperfect were the means then known for determining it. There he cast anchor, and for the first time Christian men trod the soil of Africa south of the tropic.

A more desolate place than that on which the weary seamen landed could hardly be, and no mention is made by the early Portuguese historians of any sign of human life being observed as far as the explorers wandered. Unfortunately the original journal or log-book of the expedition has long since disappeared, so that much that would be intensely interesting now can never be known. But this is certain, that refreshment there could have been none, except fish and the eggs and flesh of sea-fowl that made their nests on the islets. It was no place in which to tarry long. Before he left, Dias set up a marble cross some six or seven feet in height, on an eminence that he named Serra Parda, the Grey Mountain, as a token that he had taken possession of the country for his king. For more than three hundred years that cross stood there above the dreary waste, just as the brave Portuguese explorer erected it. The place where it stood so long is called Pedestal Point.

Here one of the negresses was left, almost certainly to perish, when the expedition moved onward.

From Angra Pequena Dias tried to keep the land in sight, but as it was the season of the southeast winds, which were contrary, he could not make rapid progress. At length by repeatedly tacking he reached an inlet to which he gave the name Angra das Voltas, the Bay of the Turnings. There is a curve in the land in the position indicated, 29° S., but the latitudes given are not to be depended upon, and the expedition may have been far from it and farther still from the point at the mouth of the Orange river called by modern geographers Cape Voltas, in remembrance of that event. At Angra das Voltas, wherever it was, Dias remained five days, as the weather was unfavourable for sailing, and before he left another of the negresses was set on shore.

After making sail again heavy weather was encountered and a boisterous sea, such as ships often experience in that part of the ocean, and which is caused by the cold Antarctic current being slightly deflected by some means from its usual course and striking the hot Mozambique current at a right angle off the Cape of Good Hope. Very miserable Dias and his companions must have been in their tiny vessels among the tremendous billows, with the sails close reefed, and hardly a hope of escape from being lost. But after thirteen days the weather moderated, and then they steered eastward, expecting soon to see the coast again. For several days they sailed in this direction, but as no land appeared Dias concluded that he must have passed the extremity of the continent. It was so, for on turning to the north he reached the shore at an inlet which he named Angra dos Vaqueiros, the bay of the Herdsmen, on account of the numerous droves of cattle which he saw grazing on its shores. Its position cannot be fixed with certainty, for the common belief that it was the one now known as Flesh Bay is mere conjecture. The natives gazed with astonishment upon the strange apparition coming over the sea, and then fled inland with their cattle, so that it was not found possible to have any intercourse with the wild people.

They did the same at another bay which he put into, and which he named the Watering Place of São Bras, but whether this was on the outward or homeward passage is uncertain, the event being only incidentally alluded to by one of the early historians. In any case no information concerning the inhabitants of the South African coast, except that they had domestic cattle in their possession, was obtained by this expedition.

How long Dias remained at Angra dos Vaqueiros is not known, but his vessels, good sea-boats as they had proved to be, must have needed some refitting, so he was probably there several days at least. He and his officers were in high spirits, as, unless they were in another deep bay like the gulf of Guinea, they had solved the question of a sea route to India. As far as their eyes could reach, the shore stretched east and west, so, sailing again, they continued along it until they came to an uninhabited islet in latitude $33\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ S. This islet is in Algoa Bay as now termed—the Bahia da Lagoa of the Portuguese after the middle of the sixteenth century,—and still bears in the French form of St. Croix the name Ilheo da Santa Cruz, the islet of the Holy Cross, which he gave it on account of the pillar bearing a cross and the arms of Portugal which he erected upon it.

Dias visited the mainland, where he observed two native women gathering shellfish, who were left unmolested, as the king had issued instructions that no cause of offence should be given to the inhabitants of any countries discovered. Here the last of the negresses was set ashore, as one had died on the passage. The coast was examined some distance to the eastward, and to a prominent rock upon it the name Penedo das Fontes, the Rock of the Fountains, was given by some of the people, because two springs of water were found there.

Here the seamen protested against going farther. They complained that their supply of food was running short, and the storeship was far behind, so that there was danger of perishing from hunger. They thought they had surely done sufficient in one voyage, for they were fourteen hundred miles

beyond the terminus of the preceding expedition, and no one had ever taken such tidings to Portugal as they would carry back. Further, from the trending of the coast it was evident there must be some great headland behind them, and therefore they were of opinion it would be better to turn about and look for it. One can hardly blame them for their protest, considering the fatigue and peril they had gone through and the wretchedly uncomfortable life they must have been leading.

Dias, after hearing these statements, took the officers and some of the principal seamen on shore, where he administered an oath to them, after which he asked their opinion as to what was the best course to pursue for the service of the king. They replied with one voice, to return home, whereupon he caused them to sign a document to that effect. He then begged of them to continue only two or three days' sail farther, and promised that if they should find nothing within that time to encourage them to proceed on an easterly course, he would put about. The crews consented, but in the time agreed upon they advanced only to the mouth of a river to which the commander gave the name Infante, owing to João Infante, captain of the *São Pantaleão*, being the first to leap ashore. The river was either the Kowie, the Fish, or the Keiskama, as known to us. Its mouth was stated to be twenty-five leagues from the islet of the Cross, and to be in latitude $32\frac{3}{4}^{\circ}$ S., which was very incorrect.

But now, notwithstanding this error, there should have been no doubt in any mind that they had reached the end of the southern seaboard, which in a distance of five hundred miles does not vary ninety miles in latitude. The coast before them trended away to the north-east in a bold, clear line, free of the haze that almost always hung over the western shore. And down it, only a short distance from the land, flowed a swift ocean current many degrees warmer than the water on either side, and revealing itself even to a careless eye by its deeper blue. That current could only come from a heated sea in the north, and so they might have known that the eastern side of Africa had surely been reached.

Whether the explorers observed these signs the Portuguese writers who recorded their deeds do not inform us, but from the river Infante the expedition turned back. At Santa Cruz Dias landed again, and bade farewell to the cross which he had set up there with as much sorrow as if he was parting with a son banished for life. In returning, the great headland was discovered, to which the commander gave the name Cabo Tormentoso—the Stormy Cape—afterwards changed by the king to Cabo de Boa Esperança—Cape of Good Hope—owing to the fair prospect which he could now entertain of India being at last reached by this route. What particular part of the peninsula Dias landed upon is unknown, but somewhere upon it he set up another of the marble pillars he had brought from Portugal, to which he gave the name São Philippe. The country about it he did not explore, as his provisions were so scanty that he was anxious to get away. Keeping along the coast, after nine months' absence the storeship was rejoined, when only three men were found on board of her, and of these, one, Fernão Colaça by name, died of joy upon seeing his countrymen again. The other six had been murdered by negroes with whom they were trading.

Having replenished his stock of provisions, Dias set fire to the storeship, as she was in need of refitting and he had not men to work her; and then sailed to Prince's Island in the bight of Biafra, where he found some Portuguese in distress. A gentleman of the king's household, named Duarte Pacheco, had been sent to explore the rivers on that part of the coast, but had lost his vessel, and was then lying ill at the island with part of the crew who had escaped from the wreck. Dias took them all on board, and, pursuing his course in a north-westerly direction, touched at a river where trade was carried on and also at the fort of São Jorge da Mina, an established Portuguese factory, of which João Fogaça was then commander. Here he took charge of the gold that had been collected, after which he proceeded on his way to Lisbon, where he arrived in December 1487, sixteen months and seventeen days from the time of his setting out.

No other dates than those mentioned are given by the early Portuguese historians, thus the exact time of the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope and the coast onward to the mouth of the Infante river is doubtful, and it can only be stated as having occurred in the early months of 1487. The voyage surely was a memorable one, and nothing but regret can be expressed that more of its details cannot be recovered. Of the three pillars set up by Dias, two—those of the Holy Cross and São Philippe—disappeared, no one has ever been able to ascertain when or how; that of São Thiago at Angra Pequena remained where it was placed until it was broken down by some unknown vandals in the nineteenth century.

Meantime the king sent two men named Affonso de Paiva, of Castelbranco, and João Pires, of Covilhão, in another direction to search for Prester John. For this purpose they left Santarem on the 7th of May 1487, and, being well provided with money, they proceeded first to Naples, then to the island of Rhodes, and thence to Alexandria. They were both conversant with the Arabic language, and had no difficulty in passing for Moors. At Alexandria they were detained some time by illness, but upon recovering they proceeded to Cairo, and thence in the disguise of merchants to Tor, Suakin, and Aden. Here they separated, Affonso de Paiva having resolved to visit Abyssinia to ascertain if the monarch of that country was not the potentate they were in search of, and João Pires taking passage in a vessel bound to Cananor on the Malabar coast. They arranged, however, to meet again in Cairo at a time fixed upon.

João Pires reached Cananor in safety, and went down the coast as far as Calicut, after which he proceeded upwards to Goa. Here he embarked in a vessel bound to Sofala, and having visited that port, he returned to Aden, and at the time appointed was back in Cairo, where he learned that Affonso de Paiva had died not long before. At Cairo he found two Portuguese Jews, Rabbi Habrão, of Beja, and Josepe, a shoemaker of Lamego. Josepe had been in Bagdad, on the

Euphrates, some years previously, and had there heard of Ormuz, at the mouth of the Persian gulf, and of its being the warehouse of the Indian trade and the point of departure for caravans to Aleppo and Damascus. He had returned to Portugal and informed the king of what he had learned, who thereupon sent him and Habrão with letters of instruction to Affonso de Paiva and João Pires, directing them if they had not already found Prester John, to proceed to Ormuz and gather information there.

Upon receiving this order João Pires drew up an account of what he had seen and learned in India and on the African coast, which he gave to Josepe to convey to the king, and taking Habrão with him, he proceeded to Aden and thence to Ormuz. From Ormuz Habrão set out with a caravan for Aleppo on his way back to Portugal with a duplicate of the narrative sent to the king by Josepe. None of the early Portuguese historians who had access to the records of the country ever saw this narrative, so that probably neither of the Jews lived to deliver his charge. Not a single date is given in the early accounts of this journey, except that of the departure from Santarem, which De Goes fixes as May 1486 and Castanheda and De Barros as the 7th of May 1487. There is no trace of any knowledge in Portugal of the commerce of Sofala before the return of Vasco da Gama in 1499, but as such a journey as that described must in the fifteenth century have occupied several years, it is just possible that Josepe or Habrão reached Lisbon after that date.

João Pires went from Ormuz by way of Aden to Abyssinia, where he was well received by the ruler of that country. Here, after all his wanderings he found a home, for as he was not permitted to leave again, he married and had children, living upon property given to him by the government. In 1515 Dom Rodrigo de Lima arrived in Abyssinia as ambassador of the king of Portugal, and found him still alive. With the embassy was a priest, Francisco Alvares by name, who wrote an account of the mission and

of the statement made to him by João Pires, and also gave such information on his return home as enabled the Portuguese historians to place on record the above details. As far as actual result in increase of geographical knowledge is concerned, this expedition therefore effected nothing.

Upon the return of Dias to Portugal with information that he had discovered the southern extremity of Africa and found an open sea stretching away to the eastward from the farthest point he had reached, King João II resolved to send another expedition to follow up the grand pathway of exploration which now offered so fair a prospect of an ocean route to India being found at last. But at that time things were not done as quickly as now, and there was besides much else to occupy the monarch's attention. The outlay too would be considerable, as ships would have to be built specially to withstand the stormy seas off the Cape of Good Hope, and the kingdom was then by no means wealthy. Orders, however, were given to the chief huntsman, João de Bragança, to collect the necessary timber, and by the year 1494 it was ready at Lisbon. Whether anything further was done towards the construction of the vessels before the death of the king, which took place at Alvor on the 25th of October 1495, is not certain; but probably some progress had been made, as a commander in chief of the intended expedition was selected in the person of Estevão da Gama, chief alcaide of the town of Sinis.

King João II having no legitimate son, was succeeded by his first cousin Dom Manuel, duke of Beja, who possessed a full measure of that fondness for prosecuting maritime discoveries which for three-quarters of a century had distinguished the princes of Portugal. Within a year of his accession the subject of making another attempt to reach India by sea was mooted at several general councils held at New Montemor, but met with strong opposition. There were those who urged that Portugal was not strong enough to conquer and keep possession of such a distant country should it be reached, that too much public treasure had

already been thrown away in fitting out exploring ships, that no adequate return had yet been made, and that even if a route to India should be opened, it would only bring powerful rivals into the field at least to share its commerce. Those of the nobles, however, who were anxious to please the king favoured the design, and at length it was resolved to send out another expedition.

Accordingly under direction of Bartholomeu Dias two ships were built with the timber that was ready, his experience enabling him to point out where they required special strengthening. Very clumsy indeed they would be considered now, with their bluff bows like the breast of a duck, broad square sterns, lofty poops and forecastles, low waists, and great length of beam; but they were staunch sea boats, capable of receiving without damage the buffeting of the furious waves they were intended to encounter. The larger of the two, named the *São Gabriel*, was rated as of one hundred and twenty tons, and the smaller, named the *São Rafael*, as of one hundred; but a Portuguese ton of that period, as has already been observed, was probably much larger than an English ton of our times, and from their build they would be able to carry a great deal more than their registered capacity would denote. They were fitted with three masts, the fore and main each carrying two square sails, and the mizen a lateen projecting far over the stern. Under the bowsprit, the outer end of which was so greatly elevated that it was almost like a fourth mast, was a square spritsail, which completed the spread of canvas. Jibs and staysails there were none, nor anything but a flag above the topsail yards. Such was the build and rig of vessels from which the graceful barques of our times have been evolved. To accompany these ships a stout caravel was purchased from a man named Berrio, whose name it bore. A storeship of two hundred tons burden was also purchased by the king from one Ayres Correa, of Lisbon, so that a supply of provisions sufficient for three years might be taken by the expedition.

Spare spars, sails, and rigging were placed on board the ships, as also samples of various kinds of merchandise and many articles that could be used for presentation to such potentates as might be found. In all respects the fleet was thus as well fitted out as was possible at that period. When all was ready the vessels dropped down the Tagus to Rastello and anchored in front of Belem, with a caravel under command of Bartholomeu Dias, which was to accompany them to the Cape Verde islands, and after seeing them on their course in safety, proceed to São Jorge da Mina.

Estevão da Gama was now dead, so King Manuel offered the chief command of the expedition to his eldest son Paulo da Gama. He, however, respectfully declined on account of a complaint from which he was suffering, and asked to have the second place, in which the responsibility would be less, and that his younger brother Vasco might be appointed commander in chief. The king consented, and in January 1497 summoned Vasco da Gama to Estremoz, where he was then residing, and conferred the highest post in the expedition upon him.

Vasco da Gama is the hero of Portugal, because he was successful in reaching India, and because his exploits were the theme of the famous poem of Luis de Camões. And if intrepidity, energy, perseverance under difficulties, and intense application to duty are the qualities that constitute greatness, he was beyond question one of the foremost that ever lived. But he was far from being a lovable man. Cold, harsh, stern, severe in punishing, fearful when in a passion, he was obeyed not from affection, but because of his commanding spirit. Perhaps if he had been as tender-hearted and humane as his brother Paulo he would not have succeeded in the great enterprise entrusted to him, where what was needed was an iron will. He was a man of medium height, at this time unmarried, and about thirty-seven years of age. He had served the late king at sea with much credit to himself, and was experienced in nautical matters.

Shortly before setting sail the king presented to him a silken banner, having on it a cross of the order of Christ, when he made the usual homage and swore to execute the trust confided to him to the best of his ability. All being ready for sea, and only waiting for a fair wind, he and the other officers repaired to the hermitage of our Lady of Bethlehem, where they passed some time in devotion. On the morning of Saturday the 8th of July 1497, not quite five years after Columbus sailed from Palos to discover a new continent in the west, the wind was favourable, so they prepared to leave. At the hermitage a procession was formed of friars and priests from Lisbon, a large number of people from the city, and Vasco da Gama and his companions carrying tapers; and chanting a litany, they proceeded to the shore where the boats were in waiting. All knelt down while the vicar of the hermitage pronounced an absolution, and then with the echo of these closing rites of religion in their ears Da Gama and his associates embarked. The sails were unfurled, and the five vessels stood away. As was afterwards ascertained, it was not the proper time of the year to set out, but nothing was then known of the periodical monsoons in the Indian sea or of the prevailing summer and winter winds off the African coast.

On board the *São Gabriel*, which was the flagship, was Vasco da Gama himself, and with him as sailing master was Gonçalo Alvares, and as chief pilot Pedro d'Alanquer, who had been with Bartholomeu Dias to the river Infante. Diogo Dias, a brother of Bartholomeu, accompanied him as secretary. Of the *São Rafael* Paulo da Gama was captain, João de Coimbra was pilot, and João de Sá secretary. Of the *Berrio* Nicolau Coelho was captain, Pedro Escolar was pilot, and Alvaro de Braga secretary. Of the storeship Gonçalo Nunes was captain. The number of men on board the four vessels is given by Castanheda as one hundred and forty-eight and by Barros as about one hundred and seventy, between soldiers and sailors. The discrepancy may be accounted for by

the officers not being included by the first writer. A friar of the Holy Trinity, named Pedro de Cobilhões, accompanied the expedition as chaplain, and a number of criminals were sent with it to be put on shore in remote and dangerous places to gather information. Probably the criminals were not included in either of the numbers given above.

The Cape Verde islands were appointed as a rendezvous in case the vessels should be separated by any accident, and this actually happened in a storm after passing the Canaries, but eight days later they came together again, and on the 28th of July cast anchor off Santa Maria in the island of Santiago. Here they remained seven days taking in water and repairing the damages sustained in the storm. On Thursday the 3rd of August they again set sail, and soon afterwards Bartholomeu Dias bade Da Gama farewell, and steered towards São Jorge da Mina.

All preceding expeditions in this direction had kept close to the coast, thereby losing much time; but Da Gama adopted a bolder plan. The longitude of the Cape of Good Hope being unknown, he could not steer directly for it, but by keeping almost due south he could run down his latitude, and then if necessary steer eastward where the degrees of the smaller circle were shorter. Holding this course during the months of August, September, and October, during which time they were often in peril from boisterous weather, but always managed to keep together, the four vessels turned eastward when it was believed they were in or near the latitude of the Cape, and on Saturday the 4th of November the South African coast was first seen. They ran in close, but as it did not offer a fitting place for anchoring, they stood off again, and continued sailing along it until Tuesday the 7th, when they discovered a deep curve which would provide sufficient shelter. The pilot Pedro d'Alauquer did not know the place, not having seen it in his earlier voyage, but they dropped their anchors in it, and gave it the name St. Helena Bay, which it still bears. It is about one hundred and twenty English miles north of the Cape of Good Hope.

Here Da Gama went on shore, but found the land sterile and apparently uninhabited. He was in want of water, and as none could be discovered, he sent Nicolau Coelho in a boat along the coast to seek for the mouth of a stream. At a distance of about seventeen miles from the ships—reckoning four English miles and a quarter to a Portuguese league—Coelho came to the outlet of a river, to which the name São Thiago was given. It is now known as the Berg. Here they procured water, fuel, and the flesh of seals, there being a great number of these animals on the shore.

To ascertain the position of the place Da Gama took a wooden instrument for measuring the angle of the sun's altitude to land, where it could be fixed more steadily on a tripod than on board ship. It would be interesting to know just what kind of instrument this was, but that cannot be ascertained. Barros terms it a wooden astrolabe,—which it can hardly have been,—and says that he has described it in his *Geography*, a book now unfortunately lost. Probably it was a kind of cross staff, several varieties of which were in common use at a little later date, but this is only conjecture. A method of using the brass astrolabe at sea had been devised in 1480 by two physicians of King João II, one of whom was a Jew, in association with the astronomer Martin Behaim, of Nuremberg, and tables of the sun's declination had been drawn up for the purpose. But the astrolabe, beautiful an instrument as it was,* gave very imperfect results, except in calm weather and when the angle observed was large. A century and a quarter later the celebrated navigator John Davis described its utility at sea as small in comparison with that of the cross staff. Da Gama had several brass astrolabes with him, but he placed no reliance upon them, and so with this wooden instrument, whatever it was, he went on shore to make observations. While he was thus engaged, some of his people observed two natives who appeared to be gathering herbs

* There is a very fine collection from different countries in the British Museum, that institution of which every Englishman has such just reason to be proud.

and honey at the foot of a hill, as each had a firebrand with him. Surrounding them quietly and stealthily, one was captured, who appeared greatly terrified on being made a prisoner by such strange beings as Europeans must have been to him.

He was taken to Da Gama, who was desirous of gathering as much information about the country as possible, and particularly of ascertaining how far distant was the Cape of Good Hope; but no one in the fleet could understand a word of what he said. He was kept on board ship that night, and ate and drank freely of the food that was set before him. Two boys, one of whom was a negro, were placed with him as companions, but could only communicate with him by signs. The next day he was provided with one or two articles of clothing, and some trinkets were given to him, after which he was set at liberty. This kind of treatment made such a favourable impression upon him and his countrymen that it was not long before a party of fifteen or twenty made an appearance. Vasco da Gama pleased them greatly with presents of pewter rings, little bells, beads, and other articles of trifling value, but he could obtain by signs no information of any kind from them, nor did they show the slightest knowledge or appreciation of the samples of gold, silver, pearls, and spices which he exhibited to them.

In the description given of these people there is but one observation that shows they were Hottentots of the beachranger class, not Bushmen, which is that among their weapons were assagais or shafts of wood pointed with bone or horn, which they used as lances or darts. They were small in stature, ill favoured in countenance, and darkish in colour. Their dress was a kaross of skin. When speaking they used so many gestures that they appeared to be rolling or staggering about. Their food consisted of wild roots, seals, whales that washed up on the coast, seabirds, and every kind of land animal or bird that they could capture. They had no domestic animal but the dog. This description would apply to Bushmen as well as to beachranger Hottentots, if the weapon had not been mentioned, and perhaps the kaross, which is said to

have been worn like a French cloak, and was probably therefore composed of several skins sewed together, whereas the Bushman was satisfied with one.

A friendly intercourse having been kept up with these savages for a couple of days, a soldier named Fernão Veloso requested leave to accompany them to their place of residence when they were preparing to return to it. This was granted, with the object of his obtaining some knowledge of the style of their habitations and of the condition of the country about their kraal, which was believed to be at a distance of about eight or nine miles. On the way a seal was captured and eaten, and then Veloso, though the most arrant braggart of his exploits and his bravery in the whole fleet, became suspicious of some evil design against himself. There is no proof of treachery of any kind on the part of the Hottentots, but when people cannot understand each other distrust arises easily. Veloso began to retrace his steps in great haste, and was followed by the Hottentots, who could certainly easily have overtaken him if they had wished to do so. That they did not is a strong indication that they were acting from curiosity rather than enmity.

Nicolau Coelho was in a boat near the shore when Veloso was seen running towards the embarking place, shouting loudly for help; but he and the others with him rather enjoyed the spectacle, on account of the man's boastful disposition. Da Gama was seated at table at his evening meal when through the window of the cabin he saw a commotion on shore, and immediately got into a boat and was rowed towards the beach to ascertain what was the matter. Some of the officers of the *São Gabriel* and of the other vessels followed. On the first boat reaching the shore, two of the natives went towards it, but were driven back with their faces covered with blood. Then followed a skirmish, in which Vasco da Gama himself, Gonçalo Alvares, and two sailors were slightly wounded with the stones, assagais, and arrows showered upon them by the Hottentots. The white men, on their part, made use of their crossbows, and believed they caused some execution with

them. Though in all the Portuguese accounts the natives are charged with treachery, the whole affair appears to have arisen through a mistake, as Fernão Veloso remained uninjured, and was taken safely on board.

In this bay of St. Helena crayfish were found in great abundance, which must have proved a very welcome relief to men so long confined to salted provisions. Some fish were also secured with the hook, and a whale was captured, which nearly cost the lives of Paulo da Gama and a boat's crew. They had fastened the harpoon line to an immovable thwart of the boat, and the whale in its struggles would have pulled them gunwale under and swamped them if it had not fortunately for them grounded in shallow water.

On the morning of Thursday the 16th of November Da Gama set sail from St. Helena Bay. At this time of the year the wind is usually dead ahead for vessels on his course, but on this occasion it was blowing from the south-south-west, so that he was able to run along the coast with his yards sharply braced. On Saturday afternoon he saw the Cape of Good Hope, but thought it prudent to stand away on the other tack for the night, and therefore did not double it until Monday the 20th. All on board were in high spirits and made merry as well as they could, for instead of the stormy seas they had expected to encounter here, the weather was so fine that they could keep close to the land on their eastward course, and had sight of people and cattle upon it.

On Sunday the 26th of November the fleet reached the watering place of São Bras, now Mossel Bay. Here, after they had been several days at anchor, a number of natives appeared, some—men and women—riding on pack oxen. They were very friendly, for on Da Gama's going on shore they received with much pleasure the bawbles which he presented to them, and exchanged some of their ivory armrings for scarlet caps. Afterwards more arrived, bringing a few sheep, which were obtained in barter. The Portuguese listened with pleasure to the tunes which these Hottentots played with reeds, their usual way of entertaining strangers. Treachery,

however, was suspected, and quarrels arose, so after a while Da Gama moved from his first anchorage to another to get away from the wild people, but they followed him along the shore, upon which he fired at them to frighten them, when they fled inland.

The little island in the bay was found covered with seals and penguins. While at anchor here Da Gama set up on the high southern point a pillar having on it a cross and the arms of Portugal, but the natives broke it down before he left. Everything was now removed from the storeship to the other vessels, and she was then burned, as there was no further need for her. Having taken in water, on Friday the 8th of December, after a detention of thirteen days, the *São Gabriel*, *São Rafael*, and *Berrio* sailed from the watering place of São Bras, and proceeded on their course eastward.

Shortly afterwards a storm arose, which caused great terror to the seamen, but the wind was from the westward, so they ran before it under short canvas until the 16th of December, when they found themselves at the low rocks now called the Bird islands, on the eastern side of Algoa Bay. Here the wind became light and variable, and after attaining a point considerably beyond the river Infante, the current carried them back again as far as the isle of the Cross. On the 20th, however, a westerly breeze set in, which enabled them to make good progress once more. They kept close to the land, and observed that it constantly improved in appearance, the trees becoming higher, and the cattle on the pastures more numerous. The green hills and forest-clad mountains formed indeed a striking contrast to the sterile waste they had seen at St. Helena Bay. On the 25th of December the charming country in sight was named by Da Gama Natal, in memory of the day when Christian men first saw it. It is uncertain what part of the coast he was then sailing along, the only indication—and that a very imperfect one, namely the distance run—given by any early Portuguese writer placing it a little north of the Umzimkulu.

Wherever it was, from this point for some reason Da Gama

stood out to sea, and was not in sight of the coast again until the 6th of January 1498, when he reached the mouth of a stream to which he gave the name Rio dos Reys, or River of the Kings, the day being the festival of the wise men or kings of the Roman calendar. By others, however, it was termed the Copper river, on account of the quantity of that metal found in use by the natives, and it was subsequently known by both names. It was the Limpopo of our day.

It was observed from the ships that the people on shore were black and of large stature, so a man named Martin Affonso, who could speak several of the Bantu dialects of the western coast, was sent with a companion to gather information. He found them very friendly, and was soon able to understand a little of what they said to him, for he was quick of perception and many words in use there and on the coast of Guinea are almost identical. Having ascertained this, Da Gama sent the chief a present of some red clothing and a copper bracelet, and so favourably disposed was every one that Martin Affonso and his companion remained on shore that night and were hospitably entertained. The next day a return present, consisting of a number of hens, was sent on board by the chief, and a friendly intercourse was thereupon established which remained unbroken until the Portuguese left. The article most in demand by these Bantu was linen cloth, for which they were willing to give a high price in copper. Owing to the manner in which he was treated, and to the provisions—chiefly millet—which he obtained in barter, Da Gama gave to the country the name Land of the Good People. Having taken in water, he set two of the convicts on shore to collect information to give him upon his return, and on the 15th of January sailed again.

He now kept away from the coast, fearing that he might be drawn by the currents into some deep bay from which it would be difficult to get out again, and saw nothing more of it until the 24th, when he arrived at the mouth of the Kilimané or Quillimane river. This he entered, and sailing up it he observed that the natives on its southern bank wore loin cloths and

that they used canoes with mat sails. Some of them came on board the ships fearlessly, as if they were accustomed to see such objects, and several could speak a few words of Arabic, though they were not able to carry on a conversation in that language. Three days after the ships anchored a couple of chiefs came on board, one of whom wore a silken turban and the other a green satin cap. Among the people also were some lighter in colour than the others, who seemed to be partly of foreign blood. To the Portuguese these were evidences not to be mistaken of intercourse with more civilised men, so they gave to the stream the name River of Good Omens.

Finding the inhabitants friendly and disposed to barter, though Martin Affonso could not understand their dialect, Da Gama resolved to stay here some time and refit his ships. They were accordingly hove down, cleaned, recaulked, and generally put in better condition than before. During this time, however, scurvy appeared among the people in a very bad form, and many died, while others suffered from fever. In this distress the humanity of Paulo da Gama was displayed in his visiting and comforting the sick, night and day, and liberally distributing among them the delicacies he had provided for his own use. The ships being ready, a pillar, bearing the name *São Rafael*, was set up, and two convicts were left behind when the fleet sailed, which was on the 24th of February. The *São Rafael* grounded on the bar when going out, but fortunately floated off unharmed with the rising tide.

Keeping well away from the land, Da Gama continued on his course until the afternoon of the 1st of March, when some islands were seen, and on the following morning seven or eight zambucos or small undecked sailing vessels were observed coming from one of them towards him. The anchors were immediately dropped, as the fleet was close to the island of St. George where the water was not deep, and soon the sound of kettle-drums was heard and the little vessels were alongside. The men in them were dark coloured, but were clothed with striped calico, and had silken turbans on their heads and scimitars and daggers at their sides. They entered the ships

fearlessly, taking the Portuguese to be Mohamedans like themselves, and began to converse in Arabic, which language was familiar to one of the sailors named Fernão Martins. After being entertained at table, they stated that the island from which they came was named Mozambique, that it was subject to Kilwa, and was a place of considerable trade with India and with Sofala lower down the coast, where gold was obtained. They offered to pilot the ships into the harbour, but Da Gama thought it better not to go there until he was better informed of the condition of things.

After his visitors had taken their departure, however, he sent Nicolau Coelho in the caravel to Mozambique, who reached the harbour safely, though by keeping too close to the island he struck lightly on a reef and unshipped his rudder. Meantime the men who had been aboard the Portuguese ships had reported to the governor what they had seen and that they believed the strangers to be Turks, so with a large retinue he went on board the caravel. His name was Zakoeja. He was a tall slender man of middle age, dressed in a white cotton robe covered with an open velvet tunic, his silken turban was richly embroidered with gold thread, and he had velvet sandals on his feet. At his side was a jewelled scimitar, and in his belt a handsome dagger. He was well received and entertained by Nicolau Coelho, but as there was no interpreter on board he did not stay long.

After this the other two ships came to the anchorage, when Zakoeja with a number of attendants paid a visit to Vasco da Gama, and was received with as much state as possible. A long conversation was held through the medium of Fernão Martins as interpreter, presents were interchanged, and the governor promised to supply two pilots to conduct the ships to India, which was what Da Gama most of all desired. The governor afterwards brought two pilots on board, who were paid in advance, and remained in the ship. A trade in provisions was opened, and the intercourse between the different peoples was of the most friendly kind. The particulars of the commerce carried on with the countries along the shores of the Indian

ocean were ascertained, and much that aroused the cupidity of the Portuguese was learned of Sofala, the famous gold port to the south.

So far all had gone well. But now the Mohamedans came to discover that their visitors were Christians, and immediately everything was changed. The wars of many centuries carried on between the adherents of the two creeds had created a feeling of the deepest animosity between them, and wherever they met—except under very peculiar circumstances—they regarded each other as natural foes. Even here in the Indian sea, where the only Christians hitherto seen were a few humble Nestorian traders, this was the case. One of the pilots deserted, and the attitude of the people on shore was so altered that Da Gama, fearing his ships might be secretly set on fire, removed to the island of St. George. Here a pillar bearing that name was set up, and beside it an altar where the first religious service of the combined crews was held since their departure from Lisbon.

Da Gama and Nicolau Coelho then left St. George in boats to demand the absconding pilot at Mozambique, but on the way met a number of zambucos, and a skirmish followed in which the Portuguese were victors, though after beating off their opponents they thought it best to return to their ships. The fleet then set sail, but the wind was so light and variable and the current so strong that no progress could be made, and after several days the anchors were again dropped at the island of St. George. Here an Arab came on board with his little son, and offered his services in case of need as a pilot to Melinde, as he said he wished to return to his own country, and this place was on the way. His offer was accepted, and he remained in the *São Gabriel*.

By this time the water was getting short, so Da Gama resolved to return to Mozambique to replenish his casks, as the pilot furnished by Zakoeja promised to show him a spring at a convenient place on the mainland. The night after coming to the harbour the boats were sent out, but the place could not be found until the next day, and then it was

necessary to use force to get possession of it. In the confusion the pilot made his escape. Enraged with the opposition shown and the insults received, Da Gama now determined to inflict punishment upon his adversaries, which he felt confident his superior weapons would enable him to do. Accordingly he attacked the village on the island with his boats, destroyed a palisade intended for defence, and killed several people, among whom was the first pilot that absconded. A few days later he bombarded the village from his ships, and did as much damage as was in his power, which brought the Mohamedans to solicit peace. An agreement, professedly of good will on both sides, was then entered into, and a pilot declared to be competent to conduct the fleet to India was provided by Zakoeja, under whose guidance on the 1st of April the voyage was resumed.

About two hundred and fifty miles north of Mozambique the new pilot took the vessels among some islets, where they were in danger of being wrecked, and as this was believed to be an act of treachery on his part, Da Gama caused him to be soundly flogged. On this account the islets received the name *Do Açoutado*, that is *Of the Scourged*. Kilwa was the port the captain-general wished to visit next, as he had been told that many of its inhabitants were Christians, but owing to the strong current he was unable to put into it, and therefore steered for Mombasa farther on. On the way the *São Rafael* grounded on a shoal, and at low water lay high and dry, where she was visited by some people from the coast; but when the tide rose she floated off uninjured.

On the 7th of April the fleet arrived off Mombasa. Da Gama would not enter the inner harbour at first, though he received pressing invitations to do so, but he sent two convicts on shore, apparently to convey presents to the sheik, really as spies to make observations. They were watched so closely, however, that they could gather very little information. The messages that passed to and fro were friendly in words, but both parties were evidently on their guard against treachery, and only a limited number of visitors at a time—and those

unarmed—were allowed on board the ships. After some days Da Gama, to allay suspicion, promised to go in, but in doing so his ship drifted towards a shoal, and such a clamour was made in letting the anchor go that some visitors to the different vessels became alarmed and jumped overboard. The pilot supplied by Zakoeja did this also, and was picked up and conveyed to land by a boat that was close by at the time. This was regarded by the Portuguese as clear proof of intended treachery, and a very strict watch was kept and no visitors were allowed on board again as long as the fleet remained there.

As soon as he could get away Da Gama set sail for Melinde, under guidance of the Arab who had come with him from St. George. On the passage he captured a zambuco, and learned from the men in her that the ruler of Melinde would most likely give him a welcome reception, and that there were three or four Indian trading vessels then in his port. The antagonism between the people of that place and those of Mombasa was indeed so inveterate that the enemy of one would to a certainty be regarded as a friend by the other. Upon his arrival at the port, which was at some distance from the town, communication was opened with the ruler, and so satisfactory were the assurances given on both sides that a meeting was arranged to take place on the water.

This was conducted with as much state as possible, the boats being decorated with flags and awnings, and trumpets and other instruments being sounded. A long conversation between Da Gama and the ruler of Melinde was followed by a pledge of peace and friendship between them, which was never afterwards broken. In token of this agreement a pillar, named *Espirito Santo*, with the ruler's consent was set up in the town. By this time nearly half the Portuguese who left Lisbon were dead, and many of the others were ill and weak ; but the refreshments obtained at Melinde and the strong confidence now felt that their voyage would terminate favourably did much towards the restoration of health and vigour. The Indian vessels in the port were manned partly by Hindoos

and partly by Mohamedans. Among these strangers was one named Cana, a native of Guzerat, who was a skilful pilot, and whose services Da Gama secured to conduct him to India.

Leaving Melinde on the 24th of April, twenty-two days later the fleet made the land a few miles below Calicut, and the object for which the Portuguese had striven so long and so bravely was attained. Of the occurrences which followed in Hindostan it is unnecessary to treat in this narrative, which has to deal with Africa alone. On his return passage Da Gama touched again at Melinde, where he was received in the same friendly manner as before, and where he remained five days to obtain refreshments, during which time several of his men died. An ambassador from the ruler of the town to the king of Portugal accompanied him when he left. Proceeding on his way homeward, the *São Rafael* struck on the same shoal where she had grounded on the outward passage, and could not be got off again. Da Gama did not regret this much, as after dividing her crew between the *São Gabriel* and the *Berrio*, there were barely sufficient men to work these two vessels, so many having died.

He touched at the island of St. George, where divine worship was held, and also at the watering place of São Bras; and doubled the Cape of Good Hope on the 20th of March 1499. Near the Cape Verde islands the two vessels parted in a storm, and the *Berrio* was the first to reach the Tagus, on the 10th of July 1499, two years and two days after she had sailed away from it. The *São Gabriel* touched at the island of Santiago, where, as she was in urgent need of repairs, João de Sá was instructed to have them made and take her home, and Vasco da Gama hired a caravel in which to proceed at once. His brother Paulo da Gama was very ill with consumption, and he wished to get him to Portugal as speedily as possible. But the invalid grew worse on the way, so the caravel put in at Terceira, where he died. Having interred his remains in the monastery of St. Francis, Vasco da Gama proceeded to Lisbon, which he reached on the 29th of August, and after making his devotions at the hermitage of our Lady of Bethlehem,

was received in the city with every possible demonstration of joy, though of all the company that sailed with him only fifty-five men saw their homes again.

The ocean highway to the rich lands of the East had now at last been traversed from end to end, and great was the satisfaction of King Manuel, his courtiers, and his people. It was indeed something to rejoice over, though at this distance of time the exploit of Da Gama does not seem much more meritorious than that of Dias. The earlier navigator had uncertainty always before him, yet he traced fully fourteen hundred miles of previously unknown coast, and he doubled the southern cape. From the river Infante to the Quilimane Da Gama sailed over twelve hundred miles of unexplored sea, but he had more, larger, and better equipped ships. At the Quilimane he saw proofs that by keeping steadfastly on his course he must succeed in reaching his goal, so that from this point onward he could have been disturbed by no fear of finding some insurmountable physical barrier in his way. But it is only the final winner of a race who receives the prize, and so honours were heaped upon him, and his name was made to occupy a large and proud place in the history of Portugal, while Dias was left almost unnoticed and very inadequately rewarded. As a foretaste of favours to come, Da Gama had at once the title of Dom conferred upon him, with a small pension and the privilege of trading annually in Indian wares to a certain amount.

CHAPTER VII.

SUCCEEDING VOYAGES AND CONQUESTS.

THE condition of affairs on the shores of the Indian sea, as reported by Vasco da Gama, was such that it was evident a display of force would be necessary to carry on trade, as the Mohamedans were nearly everywhere hostile. The whole kingdom of Portugal, however, was as resolute as the monarch himself in the determination to secure the eastern commerce, so that no difficulty was experienced in getting together what was believed in those days to be a very strong armament. And indeed, though a modern gunboat could in less than half an hour send to the bottom the whole of the fleet that King Manuel despatched on this occasion, the Mohamedans on the Indian ocean—even if they could have combined—had nothing fit to oppose it. The approximate time at which the different monsoons set in was now known, and to take advantage of them it was necessary that ships should leave Lisbon in February or March. Preparations were therefore made with all possible haste, and in the first week of March 1500 thirteen ships of different sizes, fitted out in the best manner, lay at anchor at Rastello ready for sea. Twelve hundred picked men, between soldiers and sailors, were on board, and an able officer, Pedro Alvares Cabral by name, was in chief command, with another named Sancho de Toar as next in authority.

The instructions of the king were that where they came peace and friendship were to be offered to the inhabitants on condition of their accepting the Christian faith and engaging in commerce, but if these terms were refused, relent-

less war was to be made upon them. Eight friars of the order of St. Francis were sent in the fleet to make the tenets of the Christian religion known, in addition to whom there were eight chaplains in the ships, and a vicar for a fortress which was intended to be built and garrisoned at Calicut. The reports that Da Gama had received of the gold trade of Sofala had caused a belief of its great value, and therefore a factory was to be established at that place, of which Bartholomeu Dias was sent out in command of one of the ships to take charge.

On Sunday the 8th of March the officers and principal people of the fleet attended divine worship in the hermitage of our Lady of Bethlehem, when the king delivered a banner to Cabral, and upon the conclusion of the service a procession was formed to conduct them to the river side, where they embarked. On the following morning sail was set, and the Tagus was left behind. Of those who had been with Da Gama, Nicolau Coelho, who commanded a ship, and João de Sá are the only ones known to have sailed with Cabral.

On the passage to the Cape Verde islands a storm was encountered, in which one of the ships got separated from the others, and therefore returned to Lisbon. Keeping far to the westward to avoid the calms usually met with on the coast of Guinea, on the 24th of April to his great surprise Cabral discovered a country unknown before, the mainland of South America. There, at a harbour on the coast of Brazil, he took in water and set ashore two convicts. Having despatched one of his vessels to Portugal with tidings of the discovery, on the 3rd of May he sailed again. On the 24th of this month a violent tornado was encountered, which was preceded by a calm, and the wind suddenly struck the ships with terrific force. It at once became dark as night, the raging of the tempest drowned all other sounds, and the sea rose in such tremendous billows that the sailors regarded themselves as lost. When the tornado ceased four vessels had disappeared, never to be seen again. One was that of which Bartholomeu Dias was captain and thus the

discoverer of the Cape of Good Hope found a grave in the Atlantic.

The remaining seven vessels were scattered in the storm. One, which was commanded by Pedro Dias, a brother of Bartholomeu, got as far as Magadosho, but had by that time lost so many of her crew that she put about, and returned to Lisbon, which port she reached with only six men on board. By the 16th of July the other six were together again beyond the shoals of Sofala, but had received so much damage in the tornado and in almost constant stormy weather that followed it as to be more like wrecks than sea-going ships.

Here two zambucos were seen, and one was captured, the other escaping to the shore. The prisoners stated that they had been trading at Sofala for gold, and were on their return passage to Melinde, their captain being the sheik Foteima, uncle of the ruler of that town. Upon hearing this, Cabral immediately liberated them, and restored the zambuco to the old sheik, whom he treated with the greatest courtesy on account of the alliance with the place to which he belonged. Then continuing his course, on the 20th of July he cast anchor in the harbour of Mozambique. The people of that island, remembering what had been done by a fleet only half as strong as the one now in their waters, professed the most sincere friendship, and did what they could to assist the Portuguese. Here Cabral refitted his ships, and then, having obtained a good pilot, sailed for Kilwa.

Upon his arrival at this port he sent a message to Emir Abraham by Affonso Furtado that he had letters for him from the king of Portugal, and as he was forbidden by his instructions to go on shore he desired that a place and time of meeting should be arranged. A tone of superiority was thus assumed from the first, which must have been exceedingly irritating to a man who had been accustomed to be treated as an independent sovereign. Probably had he known the position of the messenger he would have felt doubly indignant, for Affonso Furtado had been sent out as

secretary of the factory which Bartholomeu Dias was to have established at Sofala, the most valuable of the ancient dependencies of Kilwa. There could not be a really friendly feeling towards the strangers, but the emir dissembled, expressed his pleasure at their arrival, and arranged to meet Cabral on the water. Some sheep and other provisions were sent as a present to the flagship, and a counter present was sent on shore.

With all the pomp and state that both parties could display the boats came alongside each other at the time fixed upon, the letter from the king of Portugal was delivered, and an apparently friendly conversation was held. But when Cabral requested the emir to adopt the Christian faith and to surrender part of his claim to the gold trade of Sofala, he evaded giving an immediate reply, and proposed that Affonso Furtado should be sent ashore again to conclude an agreement of peace and amity. With this understanding Cabral parted from him, but when Furtado landed on the following day he found preparations for defence being made on every side, and the tone of the emir was entirely changed. It was evident that rather than submit to the demands of the Portuguese he had resolved to resist them with arms, and as Cabral's force was so reduced that he did not wish to commence hostilities here, the fleet set sail again. From this time onward Abraham was regarded as an enemy, and was made to appear as a treacherous tyrant.

Cabral proceeded from Kilwa to Melinde, where he was received with real demonstrations of satisfaction, as the ruler of that place relied upon Portuguese support in his feud with Mombasa. In consequence every thing in his power was done to assist the fleet, and he professed himself the servant of King Manuel in such terms that even the most exacting of the European officers was satisfied. The envoy that he had sent with Da Gama to Lisbon returned with Cabral, and a present of considerable value was delivered from the king. Two convicts, named João Machado and Luis de Moura, were set ashore well equipped for a journey into

the interior, and were directed to endeavour to reach Prester John. On the 7th of August Cabral set sail for the Malabar coast, having with him two pilots of Guzerat engaged in Melinde.

On his return passage, the ship commanded by Sancho de Toar was wrecked on the coast near Melinde, and when her crew was rescued she was set on fire, as nothing could be saved from her. The sheik of Mombasa, however, afterwards recovered her guns, which he mounted on fortifications in his town. Cabral arrived thus at Mozambique with only five of the thirteen ships with which he sailed from Lisbon. Here he caused them to be cleaned and refitted, and then gave the smallest of them to Sancho de Toar with instructions to proceed to Sofala and make himself acquainted with the condition of that place. With the remaining four vessels he sailed from Mozambique, but one, under command of Pedro d'Ataide, was separated from him in a storm, and was obliged to put into the watering place of São Bras to refit. With three ships therefore Cabral doubled the Cape of Good Hope on the 22nd of May 1501, and reached Lisbon on the 31st of July.

Of the visit of Sancho de Toar to Sofala very little information is given by Portuguese writers who had access to the journal of the voyage, and the other early accounts are most conflicting. One of these is by a pilot in Cabral's fleet, whose name is unknown, and who could only have acquired his knowledge from hearsay. It is to the following effect:—

De Toar found several Arab vessels at Sofala, from one of which he took an officer, whom he kept as a hostage for an Asiatic Christian sent ashore to make enquiries. After waiting two or three days without his messenger returning, he set sail for Portugal, and reached Lisbon the day after the captain general. From information given by his captive, added to his own observations, De Toar learned that the Mohamedan settlement was not large, and that the gold was obtained from natives of the interior in exchange

for merchandise, but of the condition of the country and the details of the trade he remained in ignorance.

In the *Legends of India* Gaspar Correa gives what appears to be a much more complete account. But with respect to events previous to the government of Affonso d'Albuquerque this writer was a novelist rather than a historian, and though the first part of his work possesses great value as a reflection of his times, neither his statements nor his dates are to be relied upon. He did to some extent, in short, for the early history of the Portuguese in India what Sir Walter Scott did for the history of Scotland, though his *Legends* fall far short of the *Heart of Midlothian* or the *Fair Maid of Perth* as a vivid picture of national life. Correa's account, condensed, is as follows:

Sancho de Toar took with him from Mozambique an experienced pilot and a competent Arabic interpreter. He had also as passengers several Mohamedan traders, whom he received on board in order to learn their manner of conducting the gold barter. He crossed the bar of the river safely, and anchored before the lower village, when the traders proceeded to visit the sheik Isuf, each one taking a present with him. They informed the sheik who the stranger was and that he desired a conference, upon which Isuf at once consented, and sent a ring from his finger to Sancho de Toar as a pledge of safety. The Portuguese captain then landed with ten attendants carrying a present of considerable value, and was received with much cordiality. His object, he stated, was to ascertain whether the sheik was willing to carry on trade with people of his nationality in the same manner as with others, and if vessels laden with merchandise might be sent for that purpose to his port. Isuf replied that he was very willing it should be so, provided the Portuguese kept good faith and acted as friends. He then made a counter present of gold for the captain general and one for De Toar himself, and sent a quantity of provisions on board the vessel. All trade, it was observed, passed through the sheik. The merchants displayed their

goods before him, and when approved of he delivered to them gold in payment to the amount of twelve or fifteen times the cost price. Having obtained complete information concerning the place and its commerce, Sancho de Toar set sail from Sofala, and reached Lisbon within a few hours after the arrival of the other ships of the fleet.

There was naturally a feeling of sorrow for the loss of life sustained in Cabral's voyage, but otherwise the monarch and his people were very well satisfied with what had been accomplished. The king considered himself justified now in adding to his other titles that of Lord of the Navigation, Conquest, and Trade of Ethiopia, Arabia, Persia, and India, which title was confirmed to him in 1502 by Pope Alexander VI.

Before the return of Cabral, on the 5th of May 1501 the third Indian fleet, consisting of four ships, sailed under command of João da Nova, principal magistrate of the city of Lisbon. At this time the eastern trade was not entirely monopolised by the government, and two of these ships were owned and fitted out by private individuals who had obtained licenses for that purpose from the king. On the passage out the island of Ascension—at first called Conception—was discovered, and on the 7th of July the fleet came to anchor at the watering place of São Bras.

Here in an old shoe fastened to a tree was found a letter written by Pedro d'Ataide, giving an account of Cabral's voyage to the time when he separated from that commander. From it Da Nova learned that the intended factory at Sofala had not been established on account of the loss at sea of Bartholomeu Dias and his ship, and that a fort had not been built at Calicut, where hostility had been encountered and the factor Aires Correa and a number of other Portuguese had been murdered, but that mercantile houses with Portuguese officials had been opened at Cochin and Cananor, which were peaceful and safe ports to enter. The latter part of this intelligence gave much satisfaction. On a knoll beyond the beach the chief captain caused a chapel,

or hermitage as it was termed, to be built of stone, as a place for divine worship. It was dedicated to Saint Bras. This was the first Christian place of worship erected in South Africa, and though it was small and must have been very roughly constructed, the walls were so strong that more than half a century later they were standing to the height of three or four feet. While this work was going on some cattle were obtained in barter from the Hottentots and the ships were supplied with water, and when it was completed the fleet sailed again. Da Nova touched at Mozambique, Kilwa, and Melinde, but nothing occurred at either of these places that needs mention. On his return passage he discovered and named the island of St. Helena, where he took in water, and on the 11th of September 1502 he cast anchor again in the Tagus.

A great advance was now made by King Manuel towards the establishment of his authority in the eastern seas by stationing a fleet of war there permanently. It consisted of five ships, and was placed under command of Vicente Sodre, who was a brother of Vasco da Gama's mother. His instructions were to protect the two factories at Cochin and Cananor, and in the summer months to guard the strait of Bab el Mandeb and prevent the entrance or egress of Arab and Egyptian vessels. So small a force at first sight appears altogether inadequate for the duty imposed upon it, but its insignificance vanishes on remembering that its opponents were not armed for battle. A Portuguese ship could discharge cannon at them, very clumsy indeed, but still capable of sinking them, and was herself perfectly safe if she could keep their boats from boarding her. Her crew were accustomed to war, and were full of religious zeal, believing that the Almighty was on their side in the contest with infidels. Deeds that to us look like piracy and murder were to them heroic and glorious acts, for they were living in an age of cruelty, when the meaning of the word mercy was almost unknown, and clemency to enemies of another creed was rarely practised. The Moslem trading vessels, running before the

monsoon from the coast of India with rich cargoes, were regarded by them as prizes given into their hands by the Most High.

The enormous profit upon the eastern merchandise, notwithstanding the length of the voyages and the loss of so many ships and men, induced the king to send out in 1502 a larger number of trading ships than had ever gone before. The chief command was offered to Pedro Alvares Cabral, but he made so many objections to the nearly independent authority given to Vicente Sodre that the offer was withdrawn, and Dom Vasco da Gama, who had now the title of Admiral of the Eastern Seas conferred upon him, was selected for the post. On the 10th of February 1502 the fleet set sail from the Tagus. It consisted of the five ships commanded by Vicente Sodre, who was second in authority and next in succession in case of the death of the admiral, and ten others that were intended to return with cargoes. Still other five were being equipped, but were not then ready for sea, and did not sail until the 1st of April. They were commanded by Estevão da Gama, first cousin of the admiral, under whose orders he was to place himself upon his arrival in India.

Da Gama took in water at a port near Cape Verde, where he remained six days, and sailed again on the 7th of March. After encountering several storms in which some of his ships received much damage, he reached Cape Correntes with all except one commanded by Antonio do Campo, that was somewhere behind. Here he sent Vicente Sodre on to Mozambique with the ten largest vessels, and with the four smallest he steered for Sofala, in accordance with instructions from the king. He crossed the bar and anchored in front of the lower village, where he exchanged courtesies and presents with the sheik Isuf and confirmed the agreement of friendship with him, but did not obtain much gold in barter. Here he remained twenty-five days, making himself acquainted with the locality and the particulars of the interior trade. When leaving, one of his vessels struck on the bar and was lost, but her crew and cargo were saved.

Upon his arrival at Mozambique fifteen days after Vicente Sodre, he found a caravel that had been taken out in pieces on board the other ships nearly ready for sea. She was named the *Pomposa*, and had been designed by the king to guard the coast between the island and Sofala and carry on a trade in gold, but after what he had seen the admiral resolved to take her to India. A gentleman named João Serrão was appointed to command her. Zakoeja was then dead, and a much more friendly or perhaps more timid governor filled his place, so everything went on smoothly at Mozambique, where Da Gama remained four days, and then set sail for Kilwa.

This port he reached on the 12th of July, and entered it amidst a roar of artillery, as he had resolved to reduce the emir Abraham to submission owing to what had happened to Pedro Alvares Cabral. Upon his threatening to put the town to fire and sword if that potentate would not meet him, the emir with some attendants went off in zambucos, when Da Gama caused him to be seized, and informed him that he must become a vassal of Portugal and pay a yearly tribute of two thousand maticals of gold, about £893 15s. English sterling money, or he would be detained as a prisoner and taken to India. With this alternative before him, Abraham professed to be submissive, and an agreement was entered into in compliance with Da Gama's terms. A hostage was given to the admiral in the person of one Mohamed Ankoni, a man of rank in the town, and the emir was then permitted to return to land. But the tribute for the first year was not sent off as promised, so Mohamed Ankoni, knowing that Abraham would be rather pleased than otherwise with his detention or death, owing to jealousy and ill will entertained towards him, paid it himself to recover his freedom. The transaction does not seem very conclusive now, but Da Gama was satisfied with it, and Kilwa was thereafter considered a vassal state of Portugal.

Shortly after this the squadron under Estevão da Gama joined the admiral. It had been becalmed off Sofala, and lay at anchor outside the bar there from the 15th to the 17th of July, but did not attempt to enter the river, though smoke

signals to do so were made from the shore. From Kilwa the admiral proceeded towards Melinde, but could not reach that port owing to the currents, so anchored at a distance of about thirty-four miles from it and by means of a messenger exchanged greetings with its friendly ruler. Thence he set sail for India, which he reached safely with the entire fleet except the ship commanded by Antonio do Campo, that did not cross over until the next favourable monsoon.

On the passage a large vessel, named the *Meri*, was fallen in with. She belonged to the Mameluke ruler of Egypt, and had a rich cargo of spices and other merchandise taken in at Calicut, with which and a number of pilgrims—including over fifty women and children—she was proceeding to the Red sea. There were two hundred and sixty men on board. She was captured without resistance, but when her cargo was being removed the Mohamedans tried to recover her. The result was that Da Gama caused her to be set on fire, and of all on board only twenty children were taken off, who were afterwards baptized and placed in a convent in Lisbon. All the others died by the sword or by fire.

On his return passage Da Gama touched only at Mozambique, where he took in water and refreshments. He reached Lisbon on the 1st of September 1503, and the tribute from Kilwa, the first from any state bordering on the Indian ocean, was received by the king with much gratification. It was presented to the monastery of Belem, to be devoted to the service of religion.

In 1503 three squadrons, each of three ships, were sent out, respectively under Francisco d'Albuquerque, Affonso d'Albuquerque, and Antonio de Saldanha. The transactions of the first two at any part of the African coast were too unimportant to need mention here. The last named was instructed to cruise for some time off the entrance to the Red sea, and destroy all the Arab commerce that he could before proceeding to India. The captains who sailed under his flag were Diogo Fernandes Pereira and Ruy Lourenço Ravasco, but before reaching the Cape of Good Hope the three ships separated

from each other, and as the commodore did not know where he was, he entered a deep bay and cast anchor. Before him rose a great mass of rock, nearly three thousand six hundred feet in height, with its top making a level line more than a mile and a half in length on the sky. This grand mountain was flanked at either end with less lofty peaks, supported by buttresses projecting towards the shore. The recess was a capacious valley, down the centre of which flowed a streamlet of clear sweet water that fell into the bay just abreast of the ship at anchor.

The valley seemed to be without people, but after a while some Hottentots made their appearance, from whom a cow and two sheep were purchased. The natives were suspicious of the strangers, however, for on another occasion some two hundred of them suddenly attacked a party of Portuguese who had gone on shore, and Saldanha himself received a slight wound. Before this affray the commodore, who was in the full vigour of early life and filled with that love of adventure which distinguished his countrymen in those days of their glory, had climbed to the top of the great flat rock, to which he gave the name Table Mountain, the ravine in its face pointing out the place of ascent then, as it does to-day. From its summit he could see the sheet of water now known as False Bay, and on the isthmus connecting the Cape peninsula with the mainland some lakelets were visible. These he mistook for the mouth of a large river emptying into the head of False Bay, and thereafter for over a hundred and eighty years such a stream appeared on the maps of South Africa as coursing down from a great distance in the interior, though after a time it was made to enter the sea far to the eastward. From the top of Table Mountain Saldanha could also see the Cape of Good Hope, and so, having found out where he was, he pursued his voyage with the first fair wind. The bay in which he had anchored was thenceforth called after him Agoada de Saldanha, the watering place of Saldanha, until a century later it received its present name of Table Bay.

The ship commanded by Diogo Fernandes Pereira was separated from the other two in a storm off Cape Verde, and did not again fall in with either of them on the outward passage. She made prizes of a few Arab vessels on the East African coast, and then proceeded to the island of Socotra, where she was obliged to remain until the favourable monsoon of 1504 set in, when she went on to India.

Ruy Lourenço Ravasco parted from Saldanha in a storm after leaving the island of St. Thomas, for, instead of keeping out of the gulf of Guinea, they were hugging the African coast. He was ahead of the commodore, and continued on his course round the Cape of Good Hope until he reached Mozambique, where he took in refreshments, and then proceeded to Kilwa. At this place he waited twenty days for the flag ship, and then, as she did not appear, he went on to Zanzibar. In a cruise of two months off that island he captured and either destroyed or held to ransom a great number of Arab vessels. Ravasco, who was utterly fearless, even ventured to drop anchor before the town of Zanzibar, where he attacked a large force collected for its defence, and won a battle in which among others the heir to the government of the island was killed. The ruler then begged for peace, and agreed to pay a yearly tribute of one hundred maticals of gold—£44 13s. 9d.—and thirty sheep to the king of Portugal.

Ravasco next went to the assistance of the friendly town of Melinde, which was threatened by a Mombasan army. While thus engaged he captured some vessels in which he found the principal members of the government of Brava, whom he compelled to ransom their persons and to agree that their town should pay a yearly tribute of £223 8s. 9d. Here he was joined by Saldanha, who had also taken several prizes, and whose arrival brought the sheik of Mombasa to terms. He consented to make peace with Melinde, but his own independence was not subverted. The two Portuguese ships then set sail for the Arabian coast, where they did considerable damage, after which they proceeded to India.

In 1504 a fleet of thirteen ships was sent from Portugal to India under command of Lopo Soares d'Albergaria. It touched at Mozambique and Melinde on the outward passage, at both of which places it received good entertainment. When returning to Portugal with cargoes of great value, partly taken from captured prizes, Lopo Soares touched at Kilwa, and demanded from the emir Abraham the tribute then due. The emir refused to pay it, and no attempt was made to force him to do so. At Mozambique the fleet remained twelve days taking in provisions and water, as this island had now become the favourite refreshing place of the Portuguese whether outward or homeward bound. From Mozambique the two fastest sailing ships, under command of Pedro de Mendonça and Lopo d'Abreu, were sent in advance to Lisbon with a report of the condition of affairs in India, but the one under Pedro de Mendonça ran ashore at night some distance west of the watering place of São Bras, and was lost with all her crew. Lopo Soares reached the Tagus again on the 22nd of July 1505, after the most successful voyage yet made.

And now a great step forward in the extension of Portuguese authority in the East was resolved upon by King Manuel. This was the construction and garrisoning of forts at Quilon, Cochin, Cananor, Anjediva, Kilwa, and Sofala, and the maintenance of two armed fleets, one to keep the seas from Cape Guardafui to the gulf of Cambay, the other from the gulf of Cambay to Cape Comorin, which would give him absolute control of the whole commerce of Western India and Eastern Africa. Such a design seems almost audacious for a little country like Portugal to attempt to carry out, but the people were full of energy, and the enormous profit on eastern produce gave promise of boundless wealth. Lisbon was rapidly becoming the storehouse from which all Western Europe was supplied with spices and Indian wares of every kind. These were not distributed in the places of consumption by the Portuguese, who were unequal to that additional task, and so the beautiful Tagus was visited by ships of many nations,

whose merchants drew their supplies from the great warehouses on its banks. The glory of Venice had not yet quite departed, but every year her traffic was becoming less and less.

To encourage men to enlist as soldiers for service in India, they were offered a share in the pepper trade. Their regular pay was fifteen shillings and four pence a month, with food or seven shillings and eight pence a month maintenance money; but each one received in India every year in addition three hundred and thirty pounds avoirdupois of pepper, which he was permitted to send home in the king's ships to be sold on his account. Officers of all ranks and the sailors in the fleets were paid in the same way, each one receiving a certain quantity of pepper according to the importance of his duties. At that time gold and silver had a very much higher purchasing power than they have at present, thus, according to Barros, pepper brought wholesale in Lisbon only about three pence halfpenny a pound when sold for coin, but if bartered for European goods or provisions it produced many times as much as it would to-day.

To carry out the king's design a great fleet was made ready, in which fifteen hundred soldiers were embarked. A large number of noblemen and gentlemen, appointed to various situations which they were to hold for three years, were also on board, and everything that would be needed for the object in view had been carefully provided. A capable officer, named Tristão da Cunha, was selected as head of the expedition, but when all was in readiness for leaving he was seized with an illness which for a time deprived him of sight, so he was obliged to retire from the command. The vacant post was then offered to Dom Francisco d'Almeida, and accepted by him.

This nobleman was a son of the first count of Abrantes and brother of the bishop of Coimbra. He was a man of valour, who had distinguished himself in various positions, and who was generally esteemed for his probity and generosity. The instructions issued to him provided that he should be styled chief captain and governor until the several fortresses were

built, after which he was to take the title of viceroy; he was directed what ships he was to send back with cargoes, and what others he was to keep to guard the coasts; he was to treat with justice and kindness all who should act towards him in a friendly manner, but was to wage relentless war against the Mohamedans who should oppose him; and he was especially to favour all converts to Christianity.

As commander of the fortress which was to be built at Sofala, a gentleman named Pedro d'Anaya was appointed, who was to go out as captain of one of the ships. Another gentleman, named Pedro Ferreira Fogaça, was in the same way sent out to be captain of the fortress to be built at Kilwa. But the ship in which Pedro d'Anaya was to sail sank one night in the river, which caused an alteration in the plan regarding Sofala. Instead of going there first, the chief captain was to commence the erection of fortresses at Kilwa, and as soon as other ships could be made ready Pedro d'Anaya was to be sent with them to the coveted gold port, still, however, in a subordinate position.

On the 25th of March 1505 Dom Francisco d'Almeida set sail from Belem. Never before had so many people assembled to take part in the religious observances usual on such occasions and to bid farewell to those who were leaving, for never had so many men of rank and position gone with such an expedition before. The fleet consisted of twenty-one ships, of which eleven were to return with cargoes, and the others to remain in the Indian sea. The materials for constructing several caravels were also on board. Well fitted out as the ships were, the crews were largely composed of landmen, and in one in particular there was not a sailor who on leaving knew how to manage the helm.

On the 6th of April the fleet arrived at Cape Verde, and after taking in water at some harbours on that coast, left on the 15th. As some of the ships were very slow sailers, seven of them were here formed into a separate squadron, the command of which was given to Manuel Paçanha, and with the remaining fourteen Dom Francisco tried to push on more

quickly. On the 5th of May in a heavy sea the ship commanded by Pedro Ferreira Fogaça was observed to be sinking, and her crew were hardly rescued when she went down with nearly everything on board. The Cape of Good Hope was doubled on the 26th of June, but the fleet had gone so far south to avoid danger that the cold was very severe and the decks of the ships were covered with snow. Turning now to the north-eastward, without touching anywhere on the way himself, but sending two ships under Gonçalo de Paiva and Fernão Bermudes to Mozambique for information, Dom Francisco d'Almeida reached Kilwa on the 22nd of July. His squadron was intact, except the vessels detached and one, of which João Serrão was captain, that had parted from him in a gale.

João da Nova, who was going out to command the fleet of war that was to guard the sea from the gulf of Cambay to Cape Comorin, was at once sent ashore to arrange with the emir Abraham for a meeting. Some fruit was taken on board the flagship as a present when she dropped anchor, but no other show of welcome was made, nor was the Portuguese flag that the admiral Dom Vasco da Gama had left there exhibited as a sign of dependency. The emir promised João da Nova to meet Dom Francisco on the water the following morning, but when the time came and the gaily decorated Portuguese boats were there in readiness, he sent word that a black cat had crossed his path on rising, which was an omen that no agreement made that day would be lasting, and therefore he wished to postpone the interview. Shortly after this, however, he fled to the mainland with a few attendants, but left about fifteen hundred men capable of bearing arms in the town, though there was nothing like a spirit of union among them.

Thereupon Dom Francisco resolved to take forcible possession of the place. To do this, at early dawn in the morning of the 24th he landed at the head of three hundred men at one point, and his son Dom Lourenço d'Almeida with two hundred at another, when each marched towards the residence of the emir.

Hardly any resistance was offered, except in one of the narrow streets, for instead of attempting to defend the town most of the inhabitants followed their ruler to the mainland with as much of their movable property as they could carry away. The residence of the emir, which was in a commanding position, was thus easily secured, after which the Franciscan friars in the fleet landed and set up a cross, before which the canticle *Te Deum Laudamus* was chanted, and when this was concluded the place was given up to plunder. A great quantity of calico, spices, and other Indian produce, as well as ivory, ambergris, and African provisions, was collected and stored in a well guarded building close to the beach.

No time was lost in selecting a site for a fort, as the emir's residence was in a good position and could be altered and strengthened to serve the purpose. The adjoining buildings were cleared away to leave a large open space on three sides, and their materials were used for the necessary additions to the walls and for the construction of towers. On the fourth side the fort was so close to the shore of the harbour that at high water the waves beat against it. In twenty days the work was completed and cannon were mounted on the walls, as every one in the fleet, the commander himself included, joined with alacrity in the task of carrying stones and earth, and lightened the labour with jests and merry songs. The structure was named São Thiago, after the patron saint of the Iberian peninsula, on whose festival the work was commenced.

Meantime the form of the future government of Kilwa was taken into consideration. Dom Francisco d'Almeida resolved to leave everything as it was, except by changing the person at the head of the administration, and to permit the inhabitants of the town to return and resume possession of their houses in peace and security, provided they would accept the new ruler appointed by him. The emir Abraham, being a usurper, had no strong hold upon the affections of the people, and they consented readily to his being displaced. Between him and Mohamed Ankoni, who has been mentioned before,

there was a deep feeling of enmity, which had caused Mohamed to be regarded by the Portuguese as their firm friend, as he professed to be. This was the man selected by Dom Francisco, with the consent of a council of his officers, to take the place of the deposed emir. He was not connected in any way with the family that had ruled Kilwa for centuries, but that was not regarded as of any importance, since he was to owe his position solely to the favour of the Portuguese.

Accordingly Mohamed Ankoni was offered the title of king, which he accepted, and he was crowned and proclaimed with much ceremony. He was about sixty years of age, and had sons who might succeed him, but for some reason or other—possibly to gain favour with the people—he stipulated that on his death the heir of the last legitimate ruler, the youth who had been kept out of his inheritance by the emir Abraham, should take his place. To this Dom Francisco agreed, attributing the proposal to the new *king's* goodness of disposition. Mohamed Ankoni made oath to pay the tribute imposed by Dom Vasco da Gama fully and regularly, and in all respects to act as a loyal and faithful vassal of Portugal. In this manner the difficulty of government, which the conquerors were too few in number to take upon themselves, was satisfactorily overcome.

Pedro Ferreira Fogaça was installed as captain of the fortress, with Francisco Coutinho as magistrate, and Fernão Cotrim as factor to conduct trade. Various other officials were appointed, and with the soldiers one hundred and fifty men in all were stationed in the fort São Thiago as a garrison. Instructions were given that a small vessel which was being constructed of timber brought from Lisbon and the caravel under command of Gonçalves Vaz de Goes, then in the squadron under Manuel Paçanha, should be kept to guard the coast as far down as Sofala, making Kilwa their home station and base of operations. Thus was commenced the Portuguese dominion on the coast of Eastern Africa, and in the Indian sea as well, for Fort São Thiago was the first stronghold built and garrisoned anywhere beyond Angola.

While these events were taking place the strayed ship under João Serrão arrived, and also the two under Gonçalo de Paiva and Fernão Bermudes that had been sent to Mozambique to obtain information. These brought letters from Lopo Soares that had been left at that island, containing an account of the condition of affairs in India and of his successful voyage, which gave much satisfaction to Dom Francisco and those with him. Nothing more now remaining to be done at Kilwa, on the 8th of August the fleet set sail, and in the evening of the 13th cast anchor outside the bar of Mombasa.

Gonçalo de Paiva's vessel was a small one, and he was therefore sent on the following morning to take soundings before the other ships should attempt to enter the harbour. When doing this he was fired upon from a battery on the shore, on which were mounted the guns recovered from Sancho de Toar's ship that had been lost when returning from India with Pedro Alvares Cabral, and a ball from one of them went through his vessel from stem to stern, without, however, harming any one on board. He returned the fire with his artillery so effectually that the magazine of the battery exploded, when the guns were silenced, and the men who worked them fled into the town. The soundings were then completed, and it was ascertained that the fleet could enter without danger.

Thereupon Dom Francisco d'Almeida stood into the harbour and anchored his ships in two divisions before different parts of the town. When this was done a message was sent to the ruler by a pilot brought from Kilwa, offering peace and friendship on condition of his becoming a vassal of Portugal and paying tribute, otherwise war would be waged against him. The messenger was not even allowed to land, but some men from the shore—among whom was a Portuguese renegade—called out to him to inform the captain general that the warriors of Mombasa were not like the hens of Kilwa to be frightened at the sound of artillery, as he would find if he attempted to enter the town. From an inhabitant of the place who was taken prisoner by some boats that were

sent up the strait, it was learned also that as soon as the attack on Kilwa became known preparations for defence were hurried on, and that in addition to the Mohamedan residents over fifteen hundred Kaffir archers were in the town and more were hourly expected.

An attempt to bombard the place was then made, but without any effect, as the artillery of those days was not sufficiently powerful to cause damage at such a distance. An endeavour to set fire to some vessels from India that were anchored in the strait was also a failure, and in making it the captain João Serrão was severely wounded and two others were killed with poisoned arrows. Dom Francisco next pretended to be preparing to attack the town in a particular place opposite his main squadron, and even sent his son Dom Lourenço with a strong party on shore there as if to try to set it on fire, but with orders to retreat to his boats without hard fighting. Dom Lourenço carried out these instructions, but lost two men killed and many wounded in doing so. By this means the captain general drew the whole strength of the enemy to guard and protect that side, and was enabled to carry out the plan of operations he had formed.

Before dawn of the morning following this ruse nearly the whole Portuguese force, after having received absolution from the priests, left the ships in boats to attack Mombasa. One division, under Dom Lourenço, went straight ashore to the front of the town, where the skirmish had taken place, and for a time was believed by the defenders to constitute the whole body of assailants. Another, but much smaller division, rowed up the strait to the vessels from India, to sound trumpets and make as much noise as possible, in order to draw the attention of the enemy to that point. This, however, was only a feint, for the principal attacking force, under the captain general in person, leaving the smaller squadron which was anchored off the inner end of the town, landed round a point, and fell upon the place from behind.

The plan succeeded, though the defenders made a desperate resistance, especially in the narrow streets, which were so steep

that huge boulders could be rolled down them, and where arrows were discharged from the windows and stones hurled from the flat roofs until the Portuguese made their way up and got possession of those terraces. The residence of the ruler was the point aimed at, and there Dom Francisco and his son, after a severe combat in the open space in front, met and found the building abandoned. The townspeople and their Kaffir auxiliaries now strove to flee to a palm grove at some distance, but were shot down with the firelocks and crossbows of the victors and pierced with their lances until it was believed that over fifteen hundred had perished. Fully a thousand, mostly women and children, were made prisoners. Mombasa was then given over to be plundered, and when the spoil was secured was set on fire and as much of it as was possible was destroyed. Only five or six Portuguese had lost their lives, but more than seventy had been wounded, some very severely.

Still, notwithstanding his heavy punishment of a people whose chief offence was refusing to surrender their independence, Dom Francisco d'Almeida was for his day a humane man. None of those revolting mutilations and barbarities practised by the great Affonso d'Albuquerque on similar occasions, and which must ever stain the memory of his name, were inflicted upon the captives who, trembling with fear, were brought before the victorious captain general. He selected two hundred to be retained in bondage, and set the others at liberty. This was regarded as magnanimity in the early years of the sixteenth century, and particularly so when dealing with Mohamedans.

The caravel commanded by Gonçalo Vaz de Goes was laden with calico, part of the spoil, and sent to Mozambique to be ready for the trade of Sofala when a fortress should be erected there, after which the remainder of the fleet was towed over the bar and waited outside until a fair wind enabled it to proceed farther up the coast. No garrison was left to occupy Mombasa, so the inhabitants resumed possession of the ruins as soon as the Christians retired.

It was the intention of Dom Francisco d'Almeida to put into Melinde next, to greet the friendly ruler of that town, but the currents carried him beyond it, so he anchored in a bay about twenty-five miles farther on, where he found two of the ships of the squadron under Manuel Paçanha. From this place messengers were sent to Melinde with a present from King Manuel to the ruler, to which the captain general added a considerable quantity of the spoils of Mombasa. The destruction of this place occasioned great satisfaction at Melinde, and complimentary messages to Dom Francisco with a supply of refreshments for his ships were sent in return. On the 27th of August the fleet again set sail, and with a fair wind crossed over to Anjediva, where a fort was built and garrisoned, after which the captain general took the title of viceroy. The whole of the squadron under Manuel Paçanha had previously joined him, except one ship, commanded by Lopo Sanches, which it was afterwards ascertained had been wrecked near Cape Correntes, and another, under Lucas d'Affonseca, that remained at Mozambique until the next favourable monsoon.

On the 6th of March 1506 two fleets left Lisbon together for India. One, consisting of nine ships, was commanded by Tristão da Cunha, and the other, of five ships, was under Affonso d'Albuquerque. On the passage the islands of Tristão da Cunha were discovered and part of the coast of Madagascar was explored, Mozambique was touched at, and Melinde was visited. There was a feud at this time between the sheik of Melinde and the town of Oja, which was about seventy miles distant. Oja was on the coast of the mainland, and contained many well built stone houses, with a wall to protect it on the inner side; but it was without a harbour. To please the friend of Portugal, Tristão da Cunha undertook to reduce it. He sailed to the place, and having anchored in the roadstead, sent a message ashore demanding an interview with the ruler and submission to the crown of Portugal. To this he received a reply that the sheik of Oja would acknowledge no superior except the sultan of Egypt, who was the caliph in succession

to the prophet Mohamed, and without whose permission he could have no dealings with strangers who were acting as enemies. The next day the Portuguese landed in two divisions, under Tristão da Cunha and Affonso d'Albuquerque, and without much difficulty defeated the inhabitants and killed the sheik. The town was then plundered and set on fire, when the flames spread so quickly that several soldiers who were still seeking spoil lost their lives.

The fleet then proceeded to Lamu, a town of no great importance about sixty miles farther on. The sheik of this place was so terrified by the fate of his neighbour that he at once offered to submit and pay a yearly tribute of £268 2s. 6d. To this the Portuguese officers agreed, when the amount for that year was at once delivered, together with a quantity of provisions, so no damage was done to the town or its people.

Brava, one of the strongest cities on the coast, was next aimed at. Some of the principal men of this place had been captured in trading vessels by Ruy Lourenço Ravasco in 1503 and had been obliged to consent that it should become tributary to Portugal, but upon their return home this agreement was repudiated by the government, and every effort had since been made to prepare against attack. Upon the arrival of the fleet under Tristão da Cunha and Affonso d'Albuquerque, Diogo Fernandes Pereira, captain of the ship *Cerne*, was sent ashore to make the customary demand. The reply that he received was significant, though it was not in words: he was conducted to a spot where over six thousand armed men marched past before him. But most of these warriors were negroes, whose weapons were assagais and bows and arrows, so the display by no means intimidated the Portuguese.

At dawn the next morning Tristão da Cunha and Affonso d'Albuquerque landed at the head of their soldiers and sailors, and after a desperate resistance, in which forty-two Portuguese were killed and over sixty wounded, Brava was taken. The spoil was immense. Shocking barbarities were committed by some of the soldiers, who even cut off the hands of the Arab women to get the silver armrings which they wore. But such

cruelties were not approved by every one, and some among those who regarded the butchery of defenceless Mohamedans as meritorious did not doubt that the loss of a boatload of goods and the drowning of a number of soldiers was a manifestation of God's wrath upon the evil doers for their excesses in mutilating the unfortunate females. After Brava was plundered it was given to the flames, and was left a smouldering mass of ruins.

This was by no means an end of the Portuguese conquests on the eastern coast of Africa, but formidable military opposition to their predominance, after the fall of Kilwa, Mombasa, and Brava, was with good reason regarded as no longer to be feared, and it was believed that a few armed caravels would be sufficient to control or destroy the commerce of the whole of the Mohamedan settlements south of Magadosho.

The danger to the European adventurers thus lay elsewhere. They had as opponents the ruler of Calicut, the whole of the Moslem population on the coast of India, and those of the coasts of Persia and Arabia. To the aid of these came the sultan of Egypt, who was stirred to action by religious zeal and by the loss of the lucrative commerce that had once passed through his dominions. He fitted out a great war fleet on the shores of the Red sea, which he placed under command of a native of Kurdistan, named Hocem and entitled emir, an able naval officer, and sent it to India to operate against the Portuguese. On board this fleet were fifteen hundred soldiers, belonging to all the nationalities of the Levant.

Dom Lourenço d'Almeida, who was in command of a squadron of considerable strength, was at anchor in the harbour of Chaul when the emir Hocem sailed in and attacked him. He defended himself successfully until a fleet from Diu arrived also, when the opposing force became so disproportionate to his own that no hope was left except that of escape. Most of his ships managed to get away, but his own grounded, and after a desperate combat was taken when nearly every man on board was either dead or wounded. The

young commander—he was not twenty-one years of age—was among the dead. During the action one of his legs was badly hurt by a cannon ball, but he had it hastily bandaged, and then took a seat by the mainmast of his ship and continued to issue orders until he was struck in the breast by another ball, when he fell back dead.

For a short time the Egyptian flag was supreme, but the viceroy collected all his ships of war, and with a much stronger force than his gallant son had commanded, he sailed from Cananor against his foe. On the 2nd of February 1509 a great naval battle was fought off Diu, which ended in the complete destruction of the Mohamedan fleet. Thereafter the supremacy of the Portuguese in the Indian ocean was assured, for until the appearance of other Europeans there they never again had an enemy so powerful at sea to contend with, though in 1538 the sultan of Turkey sent a strong fleet against them. And now for nearly a century the commerce of the East was as much a monopoly of the monarchs of Portugal as it had previously been of the Mohamedans.

On the 5th of November 1509 Affonso d'Albuquerque succeeded the viceroy Dom Francisco d'Almeida, but had the title only of governor and captain general. The transfer of power was delayed as long as possible, and was at last made most unwillingly; perhaps it would not have been made even then, for many officers of note supported the viceroy in resisting D'Albuquerque's claims, but the arrival of a powerful fleet under the marshal Dom Fernando Coutinho with positive orders from the king left no choice in the matter. Between the political opinions of these two high officials there was a great difference. Dom Francisco d'Almeida favoured the maintenance of a powerful fleet to command the sea, and was opposed to the establishment of many fortresses on land, as too heavy a burden for the little kingdom of Portugal to bear. Affonso d'Albuquerque was imbued with imperialistic ideas: he desired a great territorial dominion, which he believed could be easily maintained, owing to the rivalries and feuds among the various nationalities in the East. In 1510

he reduced Goa to submission and made it the capital of Portuguese India, of which the coast of Africa formed part.

Dom Francisco d'Almeida sailed from Cochin on the 19th of November 1509 in the ship *Garga*, of which Diogo d'Unhos was master, with the *Belem*, commanded by Jorge de Mello Pereira, and the *Santa Cruz*, commanded by Lourenço de Brito, in his company. On board these vessels were also the high officials who had served under him in India, whose appointments, having been for three years only, were now filled by others. Having touched at Cananor to take in some spices, he made Mozambique next, where he was detained twenty-four days, while a leak in the *Belem* was being repaired. Continuing his passage with favourable weather, he doubled the Cape of Good Hope safely, which gave him much satisfaction. It was an age of superstition, and certain individuals in Cochin had predicted that he would never get so far on his way home, which had caused him some uneasiness, but his mind was now relieved and he thanked God that their utterances had proved false.

As the ships were in want of water they put into Table Bay, where a party of men went on shore with empty casks to fill them. Some Hottentots were found on the beach, from whom a few head of cattle were obtained in barter for pieces of calico and iron, and the trade was conducted in such a friendly manner that twelve or thirteen Portuguese subsequently requested and obtained leave to accompany the natives to their kraal, which was at a distance of three or four miles, probably on or near the site of the present village of Mowbray. At the kraal they were well treated, and some cattle were bartered, but on the way back a quarrel arose, from what cause it is impossible to say, as the accounts given by the early Portuguese historians are conflicting in this respect, though there is little doubt that it had its origin in a misunderstanding. At any rate a servant of D'Almeida and one of Jorge de Mello Pereira, with some others, were severely handled in the fray, and on their return presented themselves before their masters with their faces covered with blood.

At once a clamour for vengeance was raised by most of the officers, though Lourenço de Brito, Jorge de Mello Pereira, and Martim Coelho were of opinion that no notice should be taken of the matter, as very likely their own people were at fault; but the others maintained that it was necessary to imbue the natives with respect for Europeans, and prevailed upon the late viceroy to consent to an attack upon the Hottentot kraal. Accordingly before dawn of the morning of the 1st of March 1510 about a hundred and fifty men embarked in the boats and were rowed to the head of the bay, where they landed on the sandy beach not far from the site of the present Fort Craig. A few were armed with crossbows, but most of them with only swords and lances, and they were led by D'Almeida in person, though he went somewhat unwillingly. As he left his ship he exclaimed: "Where are you taking sixty years?" that being his age at the time. Diogo d'Unhos, master of the *Garça*, was left in charge of the boats, with instructions to wait where he was until the return of the party.

The Portuguese reached the kraal without difficulty, and seized the cattle and some children, when the Hottentots, about a hundred and seventy in number, attacked them with stones and assagais of fire hardened wood, against which their weapons proved useless, so they were obliged to retreat in disorder towards the boats. The Hottentots followed them, and increased their confusion by whistling the oxen in between to act as a protection and hurling assagais from behind with deadly effect. Many were killed on the way to the beach, and those who arrived there were dismayed to find that owing to a breeze that had set in Diogo d'Unhos had returned to the ships with the boats. On the sandy shore of the bay, too fatigued to attempt to escape by running towards the watering place where they could more easily be taken off,—as many of the soldiers were doing,—Dom Francisco d'Almeida and several others of high rank stood at the mercy of the incensed Hottentots. The royal standard was committed to the care of Jorge de Mello Pereira, who, however, was unable to save it, and just after handing it to him the late viceroy, already

wounded with sticks and stones, fell pierced in the throat with an assagai.

By this time there had perished the captains Pedro Barreto de Magalhães, Lourenço de Brito, Manuel Telles, Martim Coelho, Antonio do Campo, Francisco Coutinho, Pedro Teixeira, Fernão Pereira, and Gaspar d'Almeida. Diogo Pires, who had been Dom Lourenço d'Almeida's tutor, was at a little distance when he heard that Dom Francisco had been slain. Desiring to die by his side, he made his way to the corpse, and fell as he had wished. The slaughter still went on, but the boats were hastening towards the shore, and presently those who survived were rescued, many of them having waded out till up to their necks in water. On the shore and along the path to the Hottentot kraal lay sixty-five corpses, among them twelve of men of high rank or position, and hardly any who escaped were unwounded.

In the evening of the same day, as the Hottentots had returned to their kraal, Jorge de Mello Pereira landed with Diogo d'Unhos and a party of men to bury the dead. The corpses had been stripped of clothing, and that of Dom Francisco d'Almeida had been cut open. Those lying on the shore were hastily interred, but the others were not sought, as time was wanting and to move inland was considered dangerous. Early on the following morning the three ships set sail for Portugal.

In 1512 Christovão de Brito, when returning homeward, put into the watering place of Saldanha to visit the grave of his brother, who had fallen with D'Almeida. Diogo d'Unhos was then master of his ship, and he pointed out the place where the bodies were buried. De Brito raised a mound of earth and stones over it, and placed a wooden cross at the top, the only monument that it was in his power to erect in the time at his disposal. It would be interesting to know the exact site, but the description of the locality given by the Portuguese writers is so defective that it cannot be fixed more accurately than as being close to the sandy beach near the mouth of Salt River.

By this time many of the prominent capes and some of the bays on the coast had been named by Portuguese captains, but these cannot all be identified now. There were then no means known for determining longitudes, and the instrument commonly used for measuring vertical angles required to be firmly fixed on shore, so that the latitudes given by seamen who did not land to take observations were usually very incorrect. On this account it cannot be stated with certainty, for instance, whether the river Infante was the present Kowie, Fish, or Keiskama, for its inland course as laid down on the maps was purely imaginary. And so with many other names. Still a considerable number can be determined with exactitude, and remain in use to the present day, though generally in an English form. Such are the following: St. Helena Bay, Table Mountain, Cape of Good Hope, False Bay, Cape Agulhas, Natal, St. Lucia Bay, Cape Correntes, and Cape St. Sebastian. Besides these, a good many corrupted Portuguese words are found on most modern maps of South Africa, but they do not always represent names given by the Portuguese to the places indicated.

Note.—There is great difficulty in correctly converting Portuguese money of the sixteenth century into its English equivalent of the present day, because the real (plural reis), in which accounts were usually kept, has been constantly changing in value. At the time of the discovery of the sea route to India it was worth a little more than an English farthing, at the present moment it is valued at less than one-twentieth of a penny. Thus to express a certain number of reis at any given time in modern sovereigns and shillings, it is necessary to know what was indicated by a real at that particular time. The rate of exchange, if that could be ascertained, would not suffice, because English coin in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries was never worth its face value abroad, on account of its being so generally clipped. Another difficulty when dealing with South-Eastern Africa arises from the fact that hardly any coined money was in circulation, the matical, mitical, or mithkal as variously written, which was a certain quantity in weight of fine rough gold, being the standard of exchange. This matical differed from that of India, where it represented about seventy-three grains, while at Mozambique and Sofala, according to Antonio Nunes, who prepared tables of money, weights, and measures in 1554, it was taken to represent four hundred and sixty-seven reis. Barros also gives five hundred maticals as equal to five hundred and eighty-four cruzados of four hundred reis each.

The curator of the coin department of the British Museum did me the great favour of accurately weighing a number of Portuguese gold coins of the reigns of Manuel, João III, and Sebastião, and giving me their value in reis at the time of issue, the purity of the metal being about the same as that of the present English sovereign. The coins of Manuel and João III were slightly worn, and showed one real to weigh $\cdot 108$ of a grain Troy. One of Sebastião was in perfect condition, and weighed $\cdot 118$ of a grain Troy to the real. Another of the same monarch, slightly worn, gave $\cdot 1155$ of a grain Troy to the real. The present English sovereign weighs $123\cdot 27447$ grains Troy, and is therefore equal in intrinsic value to nearly $1044\cdot 7$ reis at the time that Castanheda, Barros, and De Goes wrote. On this basis I have converted the real during the part of the sixteenth century preceding the death of King Sebastião into English money at the rate of $\cdot 2297$ of a penny, and have valued the matical at eight shillings and eleven pence farthing. I know of no better way of dealing with this question, still it may be as well for the reader to consider the sums mentioned as only approximately correct. Of course this matter has no bearing whatever upon the relative value of gold to other commodities in the early years of the sixteenth century and the present time.

The late Sir Henry Yule by a different method from that here followed found the value of the real at different times to be:

At the beginning of the 16th century	.	$\cdot 268d.$
At the beginning of the 17th century	.	$\cdot 160d.$
At the beginning of the 19th century	.	$\cdot 060d.$ to $\cdot 066d.$
In 1886	.	$\cdot 060d.$

He also gives the value of the coin called São Thomé, of one thousand reis, struck by Garcia de Sá in the mint at Goa when he was governor general of India in 1548-9, as £1 2s. 4d., or one real equal to $\cdot 268d.$

See *Hobson-Jobson: being a Glossary of Anglo-Indian Colloquial Words and Phrases, and of Kindred Terms; Etymological, Historical, Geographical, and Discursive.* By Col. Henry Yule, R.E., C.B., LL.D., and the late Arthur Coke Burnell, Ph.D., C.I.E. An octavo volume of 870 + xlviii pages, London, 1886. Article *Pardao*, page 837.

For information upon the real see also the *Vocabulario Portuguez e Latino*, by Padre D. Raphael Bluteau. Lisboa, 1720. Article *Real*.

Another, and still greater, difficulty in giving values arises from the fact that the Portuguese historians are not in all cases in agreement as to amounts. Thus Castanheda and De Goes state that the tribute to be paid yearly by the ruler of Kilwa was two thousand maticals of gold, while Barros states that it was five hundred. In such cases there is no other course to adopt than to decide by the balance of evidence, the weight due to the testimony of each narrator, and the probability as to which is correct. In this instance I give the preference to De Goes on account of his position as Keeper of the Archives.

CHAPTER VIII.

OCCUPATION OF SOFALA AND MOZAMBIQUE.

FROM the date of Vasco da Gama's return from his first voyage to India rumours concerning the gold of Sofala had fascinated the minds of all classes of men in Portugal. Those rumours greatly exaggerated the quantity of the precious metal actually obtainable, and all the difficulties of acquiring it were lost sight of. It was believed that nothing needed to be done except to replace the Mohamedans with Christian traders, when enormous wealth would flow into the national treasury. Different efforts, as has been related, were made from time to time not only to acquire accurate information, but also to get possession of the gold trade; and Sancho de Toar and Da Gama himself on their visits to Sofala had obtained much knowledge, though before 1505 all attempts to secure the commerce of that place had failed.

Dom Francisco d'Almeida was to have erected a fortress there, but Pedro d'Anaya, who had been selected as its captain by the king, lost the ship in which he was to have sailed by her sinking in the Tagus, and was thus unable to accompany the fleet. After its departure the original design was enlarged, and it was determined to make ready a squadron of six ships with which he should proceed to Sofala. When the fortress was completed three of these were to be sent on to India, and the other three, under Francisco d'Anaya as commodore, were to be kept to guard the African coast. On board these ships everything was laden that could be needed for the equipment of the fortress, as well as a stock of merchandise for the purpose of barter, and on the 18th of May 1505 they

sailed from the Tagus. Pedro d'Anaya was in command of the *Santo Espirito*, the largest in the squadron. The other captains were his son Francisco d'Anaya, Pedro Barreto de Magalhães, João Leite, João de Queiroz, and Manuel Fernandes, the last of whom was appointed factor at Sofala.

On the passage, when off Sierra Leone, João Leite, while endeavouring to harpoon a fish, fell overboard and was drowned. The crew then elected Jorge Mendes to be their captain. In heavy weather some of the ships got separated from the commodore, who ran so far south to make sure of passing the Cape of Good Hope with a westerly wind that the men could not work the sails on account of the cold, but he was soon in warm latitudes again, and early in September arrived off the bar of Sofala with the ships commanded by his son and Manuel Fernandes. There he anchored, and awaited the appearance of the remainder of his squadron before entering the river.

The next to arrive were the *Santo Antonio*, under command of Jorge Mendes, and the *São Paulo*, of which João de Queiroz was captain when she left Portugal. They brought word that De Queiroz, after parting from the others in a storm, put into a curve on the South African coast then named Bahia das Vacas, now Flesh Bay,* and being in want of meat, proceeded two or three miles inland with twenty of his people in search of cattle. Antonio do Campo, when returning from India, had touched at the same place, and though treated in a friendly manner by the natives, had seized several of them and

* João de Barros states that this took place at the present Delagoa Bay, which he terms Rio da Lagoa, and fixes its position as about two hundred and fifty miles south of Cape Correntes. Damião de Goes and Fernão Lopes de Castanheda state that it took place at the Bahia das Vacas. Manuel de Mesquita Perestrello, in the report of his survey of the South African coast, also gives this as the scene of the occurrence. It is possible that Barros may have fallen into an error through there being then a bay named Alagoa on the southern seaboard, as may be seen in the *Esmeraldo de Situ Orbis* of Duarte Pacheco, written before the death of King Manuel, in which its position is given as fifteen leagues east of the watering-place of São Bras, that is the locality of the present Plettenberg's Bay. The description of the Bahia Alagoa of Pacheco also answers to Plettenberg's Bay.

carried them away, so that De Queiroz found them hostile. They attacked him, and in a skirmish he and fifteen of his party, including the sailing master and the pilot of his ship, were killed. Only the secretary, Antão de Gá, who was badly wounded, and four others escaped. There was no one left who could navigate the ship, but fortunately she fell in with the *Santo Antonio*, and Jorge Mendes sent on board his sailing master and as captain a gentleman named João Vaz d'Almada, who conducted her to Sofala.

The last to arrive was the ship commanded by Pedro Barreto de Magalhães. She anchored near Cape Saint Sebastian, and as her pilot was unacquainted with the shoal of Sofala and would not venture upon it, Antonio de Magalhães, brother of the captain, was sent in a boat to seek assistance from any vessel that might have reached her destination. On the way he put into a river, where he found five half famished Portuguese, who had a doleful story to tell.

They had belonged to the ship of Lopo Sanches, which had sailed from the Tagus with Dom Francisco d'Almeida. South of Cape Correntes stormy weather was encountered, and the ship became so leaky that she could not be kept afloat, so she was run ashore to save the lives of her people. An abundance of provisions was saved, and also ample material to build a caravel, but discord arose and the authority of Lopo Sanches was completely disregarded. After a time sixty men set out to travel overland to Sofala, where they hoped to find a Portuguese fort in course of erection, and the others remained at the wreck constructing a caravel. Of these last nothing was ever heard again. Those marching overland suffered so terribly from hunger that they became scattered, and most of them perished. The five found by Antonio de Magalhães had been living for twenty days upon raw crabs alone. They were taken into the boat, and conveyed to the flag ship anchored outside the bar of Sofala.

Pedro d'Anaya at once sent the vessel under João Vaz d'Almada with the pilot of the *São João*, Francisco d'Anaya's ship, to the assistance of Pedro Barreto de Magalhães, with

whose arrival some days later the squadron was complete. He then made arrangements for entering the river. The two largest ships were left outside, and with the four smallest he crossed the bar and cast anchor in front of the lower Mohamedan village. The real condition of things there at the time seems to have been unknown to him. In point of fact, the true owner of the land was a Bantu chief, and the Mohamedans were living at the port on sufferance and payment of tribute in the form of yearly presents, but he regarded Isuf as the sovereign proprietor whose consent alone was necessary to enable him to build a fort without the use of arms.

As soon as he had dropped anchor some of the principal inhabitants went on board, and desired to know the object of his visit, to which he replied that he wished to have a conference with the sheik. To this they at first raised many objections, such as the distance to his residence, the great age and infirmity of the sheik, and the impossibility of the ships going farther up the narrow river; but at last they consented, and went in advance to prepare for the captain's reception. D'Anaya followed them with a large number of armed attendants, in boats decorated with flags and with trumpeters sounding their instruments.

Having arrived at the upper village, he landed and proceeded to the sheik's residence, where he was courteously received. In the large hall were gathered the leading men of the place, clothed from the waist downward with calico wrappers, with silken turbans on their heads, and scimitars with ornamented ivory handles at their sides. In a recess hung with cloth of silk at the upper end of the hall, Isuf, a man of large stature, but infirm, blind, and about seventy years of age, reclined on a cushioned couch, or as it would be termed in South Africa a *katel*, made by stretching thongs of hide across a frame of wood. He was more richly dressed than the others, and frail as he was, had still a stately and commanding appearance. D'Anaya, leaving his soldiers in the courtyard, which was enclosed with a thick thorny hedge, with the officers entered the hall. The men there, who were seated on low three-legged

stools, rose and bowed to salute him, and he passed through to the couch of the sheik.

The people of Sofala had heard of the occurrences at Kilwa and Mombasa, and were divided in opinion as to how they should act. Mengo Musaf, a son-in-law of Isuf, was at the head of a party that wanted to resist the Christians by force, but another party was filled with fear, and the old sheik thought it wiser to rely upon the effects of the climate rather than upon arms. He therefore greeted D'Anaya apparently in a most friendly manner, and when the captain spoke to him of the advantages to be gained by the establishment of a Portuguese fort and trading station, and by his coming under the protection of the king of Portugal, taking care to draw his attention to the fact that his villages had often been pillaged by Bantu clans in the neighbourhood, he professed to agree with what was said, and gave his consent to the erection of the proposed buildings. He stated that he was a friend of Europeans, and as a proof twenty Portuguese whom he had rescued from starvation were brought forward by his order and restored to the society of their countrymen. They were the only remaining survivors of the sixty who had left the wrecked ship of Lopo Sanches, and who had gone through almost incredible suffering in their overland journey.

There were feuds between nearly all the Mohamedan settlements on the coast, and not only that, but in each of them there were jealousies among the principal inhabitants, which made them an easy prey to the Portuguese. It was so at Sofala. At this place there was living a man named Acote, an Abyssinian by birth, who had been made a captive when he was only ten years of age, and who had embraced the Mohamedan faith from necessity rather than choice. He had come to occupy a position of influence, and was at the head of a party at variance with Mengo Musaf, Isuf's son-in-law. As the one advocated armed resistance to the Portuguese, the other acted as their friend, and now Acote offered his services to the Christians. Through him D'Anaya engaged a number of Bantu who were at Sofala, and on the 21st of September

1505 set about building a fort on a sand-flat on the northern bank of the river near its mouth. It was in the form of a square, large enough to contain barracks for the garrison, store-houses, a warehouse for goods, and quarters for the officers. No stone was procurable near at hand, so a moat, a hundred and twenty paces long on each side, was dug, and the earth taken out was formed into a wall, which was supported by stakes and beams of mangrove wood. The structure was thus of the roughest description, but it was regarded as sufficiently strong for defence until time and favourable circumstances would permit of something better taking its place.

After three months' labour the fort and the buildings within it were completed. The heaviest work, such as carrying wood from the mangrove swamps, was performed by the blacks, though on one occasion they were induced by Mengo Musaf to desert for several days. Acote continued to assist, and the Portuguese, who were spared as much as possible from severe toil, were not as yet stricken with much sickness. In the mean time the vessel commanded by Gonçalo Vaz de Goes, which Dom Francisco d'Almeida had sent from Mombasa with a cargo of calico, part of the spoil of that town, arrived in the river. Her lading together with the stores and merchandise brought from Portugal was then taken on shore, and the three largest ships were made ready to proceed to India. Gonçalo Alvares, previously chief pilot, was appointed captain of the *Santo Espirito*, and sailed with João Vaz d'Almada and Pedro Barreto de Magalhães, the latter acting as commodore. They were to report themselves to the viceroy, under whose directions they were to take in cargoes of pepper and return to Lisbon. On crossing the bar of Sofala the commodore's boat was lost with most of the men in her and the chest of money intended for the purchase of the pepper, and in leaving Kilwa, where he put in, he had the further misfortune of losing his ship.

A few days after the departure of this squadron Francisco d'Anaya was sent with the *São João* and the *São Paulo* to cruize along the coast, and with him the vessel under

Gonçalo Vaz de Goes and the remaining one that had come from Portugal went to Mozambique. On his passage northward he captured a ship from India laden with calico, and having sixty Mohamedans on board. This ship was subsequently wrecked, when he caused all the prisoners to be put to death, through fear of their rising against him. A zambuco laden with ivory also fell into his hands, and her crew shared the fate of the others. But his ruthless barbarity was soon checked. Both the *São João* and the *São Paulo* were lost, one at Mozambique and the other a little farther north, and the commodore, on arriving at Kilwa in the captured zambuco, was put under arrest by Pedro Ferreira Fogaça on a charge of carelessness in the king's service. He was permitted, however, soon afterwards to proceed to India to be tried there.

At Sofala fever, which had not been very prevalent at first, now began to spread to an alarming extent, and at the close of the year the greater number of the men composing the garrison were laid up with it. A more wretched condition than that in which they were, on the border of a mangrove swamp, in a hot and pestilential atmosphere, drinking the impure water of wells, and cut off from all companionship, can hardly be imagined. Their mental and bodily suffering must have been so great that death, which was stalking among them, would be regarded as a relief. Trade was carried on, for the factor Manuel Fernandes seemed to be fever proof, but the quantity of gold obtained in barter was small compared with their earlier expectations or those of the king. They had not even the satisfaction therefore of knowing that their suffering was productive of pecuniary profit to the treasury of their country.

While they were in this state, early in January 1506 Acote informed Pedro d'Anaya that the faction of Mengo Musaf with Isuf's concurrence had come to a determination to wait no longer for fever to do its work, but to drive away the Christians at once; and as they were afraid to make war themselves, they had persuaded a Bantu clan to assist them in attacking the fort. That they had good cause to oppose the

Portuguese, who were striving to wrest the commerce of the country from them, is evident. But perhaps there was another and stronger reason for their openly assuming a hostile attitude. In the *Legends of India* Gaspar Correa states that the treatment of the people of the country by the Christians was the cause of it, and on such a question his evidence is certainly of great weight. He says they were treated worse than slaves, and though the captain Pedro d'Anaya punished some of the offenders when complaints were made to him, the disorderly conduct of the soldiers went on increasing until at length it caused hostilities. By none of the historians, it is true, is there any reference made to immoral or overbearing behaviour by the white men, but they were not given to finding fault in such matters when only Mohamedans or heathens were affected.

There was a Bantu clan in the neighbourhood of Sofala, under a chief named Mokonde, who was induced by the prospect of plunder to ally himself with the Mohamedans. The two parties joined, and advanced against the fort, armed with scimitars, assagais, and bows and arrows. There were at the time only thirty-five Portuguese capable of bearing arms inside, and even most of these were weak with fever; but Acote had come to their assistance with about a hundred men, and they were enclosed within walls on which artillery was mounted. The assailants filled the moat with wood, and then endeavoured to scale the wall, at the same time pouring in a shower of arrows and assagais. Some of these weapons were burning, the object being to set fire to the roofs of the buildings, but Pedro d'Anaya had provided against this by removing the thatch from the houses that were most exposed and laying in a good supply of water. Very little harm was done therefore beyond wounding a few of Acote's people. On the other side the defenders with their artillery and crossbows caused such execution that the enemy, finding their efforts useless to break down or get over the wall, after a time began to withdraw discomfited. Pedro d'Anaya with fifteen of the healthiest Portuguese and some of Acote's followers then

sallied out and attacked them with swords and lances, putting them completely to flight.

During three days, however, they frequently renewed the attack, though always with the same result. Their camping ground was a palm grove at no great distance, within easy range of the artillery, where some damage was caused to them not only by the balls but by splinters of wood from shattered trees. D'Anaya had two powerful dogs, which were of such use in keeping watch by day and night and attacking the enemy in sallies that he attributed his preservation largely to them. In the end the Bantu, upon whom the principal part of the fighting fell, were suddenly seized with a conviction that the Mohamedans had brought them there purposely to ensure their destruction, and under this impression they fled homeward, plundering Isuf's village on their way.

That evening Pedro d'Anaya mustered as many men as he could, and in a large boat that he had went up the river. His spies had informed him that Isuf's residence was poorly guarded, as no attack was expected from the fort on account of the sickness there. He proceeded straight to it, and met little resistance as he forced his way in; but the old sheik, though blind, seized an assagai from a bundle that he always kept beside him, and hurled it in the direction of the advancing footsteps. The captain was slightly wounded by it in the neck, but in another instant Isuf's head was rolling on the ground, severed from his body by the sword of Manuel Fernandes. With it as a trophy the Portuguese returned to the fort, where it was set up on the point of a lance upon the wall to strike awe into those who had been his subjects.

On the morning following this daring raid the slain sheik's sons raised as large a force as they could and attacked the fort again. But their efforts were fruitless, as they could not get over the wall, and the defenders kept up a deadly fire upon them, by which many were killed and wounded. Even the sick assisted with their crossbows, danger acting upon them more powerfully than medicine. Having failed in this attempt, the Mohamedans began to quarrel among themselves

as to who should be their ruler, and they actually applied to the Portuguese to settle the question. Both Damião de Goes and Fernão Lopes de Castanheda state that Pedro d'Anaya made Acote sheik, in return for the services performed by him, and the friar João dos Santos confirms this account and relates that in 1586 he found people still living at Sofala who remembered the building of the fort and the events that followed it. But João de Barros says that through Acote's influence a son of Isuf named Soleiman was made sheik, and that he lived at peace with the Portuguese and in obedience to them until 1507, when he was deposed by Vasco Gomes d'Abreu, captain of Sofala, who selected one of his brothers to succeed him. This brother and some of the principal Mohamedans of the place, it is added, were subsequently banished, as their presence was considered prejudicial to Portuguese interests, and they all died in exile.

Such conflicting statements make it difficult to arrive at the truth, and there are no original documents relating to the transaction to refer to. Very likely, however, Acote was made sheik of the Emozaidi, as he is stated to have been of that sect, and Soleiman sheik of the other Mohamedans; and as the nominal authority of the sons of Isuf was lost so soon afterwards, their names were speedily forgotten. However this may be, Portuguese supremacy was so firmly established that the Mohamedans never again ventured to dispute it.

A few days after these occurrences Pedro d'Anaya was stricken with fever, of which he died. It was a custom at a later date for every officer in command of a remote and secluded station to carry with him a sealed letter from the king, in which temporary successors were named in rotation, so that in case of his death or disability some one would be legally in charge until a new appointment could be made. There being no one at Sofala with such authority, the factor Manuel Fernandes, who was the highest in rank of the officials at the fort, assumed the vacant position. He was a man of great energy, and with only the few sick and enfeebled soldiers under his command he managed to build a

strong stone tower at one of the corners of the fort. Carved and dressed blocks for doors and windows had been brought from Portugal, so only the plain work had to be done, but the execution of this was regarded as so meritorious under the circumstances that the king granted him as a reward a coat of arms with a tower emblazoned on it surmounted by a sheik's head, in remembrance of his having killed Isuf.

A few months after Pedro d'Anaya left Lisbon a ship and a caravel were fitted out to take supplies to Sofala and also to search along the South African coast for the crew of Pedro de Mendonça's wrecked vessel and for one in which Francisco d'Albuquerque had sailed from India and that had not since been heard of. Cyde Barbudo was in command of the ship, with authority as commodore, and Pedro Quaresma was in command of the caravel. The principal pilot had acted in the same capacity under Lopo d'Abreu, and had seen Pedro de Mendonça's ship in the position where she was supposed to have been lost, consequently he knew what part of the coast should be examined.

These vessels left the Tagus on the 19th of November 1505, and ran down to thirty-seven degrees and a half south latitude, when they turned to the north-east expecting to make the land beyond the Cape of Good Hope, but so far out were they in their calculations that they reached the western coast more than eight hundred miles north of Table Bay. Even at the beginning of the sixteenth century there were few such instances of error in navigation. Steering again to the south, on the 18th of April 1506 they cast anchor at the watering place of Saldanha, where they remained eight days. Cyde Barbudo now removed to the caravel, taking his pilot with him, in order to examine the coast, and Pedro Quaresma assumed command of the ship. After sailing from Table Bay they counted the pillars, as the expression then was, that is they kept so close to the land during daylight that they could see everything along it, and on the 2nd of May they reached the watering place of São Bras, which they recognised by the hermitage built there by João da Nova.

As they had passed the coast some distance to the westward by night, Cyde Barbudo now tried to run back along it in the caravel, but was unable to do so owing to a strong head wind. He therefore again dropped anchor in Mossel Bay, and sent a convict and a ship's boy to search along the shore. After travelling three days along the beach they returned, and stated that they had found a man's skeleton and part of a mast, beyond which no information was ever obtained concerning the lost ship of Pedro de Mendonça. Her crew must have perished, like many others in later years, in a land inhabited only by barbarians. It was never known either what was the fate of Francisco d'Albuquerque and those with him, whether they went down at sea, or were wrecked on some desolate coast and died there.

On the 16th of May the two vessels left the watering place of São Bras, and keeping close to the shore whenever possible, on the 10th of June Cyde Barbudo arrived at Sofala and Pedro Quaresma on the following day. They found the fortress in the last stage of distress. The captain Pedro d'Anaya, as has been already related, had died of fever, as had also the magistrate and seventy-six of the soldiers, and the provisions were nearly exhausted. Cyde Barbudo reinforced the garrison and replenished the stores, and then sailed for India, leaving Pedro Quaresma in the caravel to assist Manuel Fernandes. This vessel was afterwards employed for a time in plying between Sofala, Mozambique, and Kilwa, taking provisions and goods from one place to another as they were needed.

On his passage to India Cyde Barbudo touched at Kilwa, where he found matters in a state of confusion. King Manuel had issued instructions prohibiting barter by private persons with Kaffirs for gold, in order to secure the whole trade for the royal treasury, and Pedro Ferreira Fogaça had fitted out a couple of small vessels to assist in suppressing the traffic that had thus become illegal. Among other prizes made by them was one on board of which was a son of the sheik of a small settlement near Kilwa, and as he was a relation of the former

emir Abraham, the Portuguese captain kept him and his family prisoners. Mohamed Ankoni, who wished to gain the goodwill of his neighbours, hereupon ransomed the young sheik at his own expense, made him presents of rich clothing, and sent him and his family to their home. The young man's father was profuse in expressions of gratitude, and invited Mohamed to visit him, suggesting marriages between their children. The *king* of Kilwa accepted the invitation, and was murdered while he was lying asleep in the zambuco in which he went. The treacherous sheik, by whose order the deed was committed, excused himself by saying that the duty of avenging the emir Abraham, whose blood relative he was, was more binding upon him than gratitude for a favour conferred by such a man as Mohamed Ankoni.

At once there was a dispute as to the succession. A few of the inhabitants of Kilwa and most of the Portuguese officers were in favour of Hadji Hocem, son of Mohamed Ankoni; but Pedro Ferreira Fogaça and the great majority of the Mohamedan people desired that Micante, the legitimate heir of the ancient rulers, should be appointed. The dispute aroused strong feeling on both sides. The cessation of commerce caused by King Manuel's order and the capture of their vessels under any pretence by the Portuguese threatened ruin to the mercantile class, so that from one cause or the other large numbers of people were leaving the town with the intention of settling somewhere else, and it appeared as if Kilwa would soon be uninhabited. This was the condition of things when Cyde Barbudo put into the harbour, and which he reported to the viceroy as soon as he arrived in India.

Dom Francisco d'Almeida immediately appointed a new staff of officials for Sofala. He selected Nuno Vaz Pereira, a man of generally recognised ability, to be captain, and gave him in addition large powers as commissioner to settle affairs at Kilwa. Ruy de Brito Patalim accompanied him as chief alcaide of the fortress, and Antonio Raposo and Sancho Sanches as notaries. A number of gentlemen without office, who were attached by friendship to the new captain, also went with him.

Among these were Luis Mendes de Vasconcellos, Antonio de Sousa, and Fernão Magalhães who afterwards entered the service of Castile and discovered the strait which still bears his name. Francisco d'Anaya at the same time returned to Sofala to look after the property left by his father. In order that Pereira might appear in a manner befitting his dignity, the viceroy sent two ships under his flag, the one in which he sailed himself and another commanded by his nephew.

At the end of November 1506 he reached Melinde, where the Portuguese were always well received. The dependent position of the ruler of that town is shown, however, by his receiving as a favour on this occasion permission to send under forty pounds weight of Indian beads to Sofala to be exchanged for gold. At Melinde Nuno Vaz Pereira learned all particulars of the condition of things at Kilwa. He saw at once that King Manuel's order regarding trade was causing the depopulation of the two places on the coast—Sofala and Kilwa—where it could be enforced, owing to the presence of Portuguese garrisons; and that elsewhere it was having little effect beyond exasperating the Mohamedans. In their light zambucos the people of all the other settlements could run close along the shore, and enter the rivers, particularly the Zambesi, where they could carry on commerce without fear of capture. It appeared to him that if the ocean was so guarded that supplies of goods could not be obtained by sea from India, the traffic would be diverted into a route mainly overland: it could not be destroyed by any force which Portugal could furnish. On the other hand, by permitting private trade the people of Kilwa would remain there, and the king's treasury would be benefited, for they would purchase goods wholesale at the Portuguese factory and pay for them in gold, ivory, and other produce of the country. Nuno Vaz Pereira therefore took upon himself the responsibility of suspending the king's order as far as Kilwa was concerned, and announced that its people might carry on trade again in exactly the same manner as in the time of the emir Abraham until further instructions should be received from Lisbon.

This course of action had the desired effect. In the middle of December the commissioner arrived at Kilwa, and with him were more than twenty zambucos filled with emigrants returning to their homes. He caused Micante and Hadji Hocem to appear before him and state their cases, and with them he summoned all the principal men of the town to express their opinions and wishes. The general voice was in favour of Micante, but to make it plain that the Portuguese had the right of appointing any one they chose, as Hadji Hocem produced the patent granted by Dom Francisco d'Almeida to his father, decision was given in his favour, and he was proclaimed *king* of Kilwa. The inhabitants, who were elated with the privilege of being able to carry on trade again, submitted without open remonstrance, though they were by no means satisfied.

Nuno Vaz Pereira, after thus arranging matters at Kilwa, appointed his friend Luis Mendes de Vasconcellos to a vacant office in the fortress, and then sailed for Sofala, where he took over the captaincy from Manuel Fernandes. This officer, feeling aggrieved that after his display of so much zeal and energy he had not received the fixed appointment to the first position in the place, declined to resume the duty of factor, and proceeded to India when the ships that brought Pereira returned.

In the mean time intelligence of the death of Pedro d'Anaya had reached Lisbon, and the king, not knowing that the viceroy had sent a successor, appointed Vasco Gomes d'Abreu captain of Sofala. Ever since the first voyage of Vasco da Gama the island of Mozambique had been used as a place of refreshment by the Indian fleets both in going and returning, but as yet no establishment of any kind had been formed there. Sofala was not adapted for a port of call, being dangerous to approach with large vessels, and not having sufficient depth of water on the bar to enable them to enter the inner harbour. It was considered advisable therefore to form such an establishment at Mozambique that the fleets should always be able to obtain whatever they needed, that if they were obliged to wait on the coast for a change of monsoon they might have a good and

easily accessible port to lay at anchor in, and that a properly furnished hospital might be ready for the reception of scurvy stricken soldiers and sailors arriving from Europe. For these purposes Vasco Gomes d'Abreu was instructed by the king to erect the necessary buildings, and a competent staff was provided to perform the duties. It was not intended that Mozambique should be a separate government, but a dependency of Sofala, one captain having command of both places. He was to reside at the island, whenever possible, during the months in which the Indian fleets usually arrived there, and during the remainder of the year at Sofala, leaving a subordinate officer at each place to carry out his orders during his absence. Duarte de Mello was appointed factor of the new establishment, and Ruy Varella notary.

Vasco Gomes d'Abreu sailed from the Tagus on the 20th of April 1507 as commodore of seven ships. The one in which he sailed and four others, commanded respectively by Lopo Cabreira, Pedro Lourenço, Ruy Gonçalves de Valadares, and João Chanoca, were to remain as a fleet of war to guard the African coast south of Melinde and suppress the ocean traffic of the Mohamedans, and the other two, under Martim Coelho and Diogo de Mello, were to join the naval force commanded by Affonso d'Albuquerque on the coast of Arabia. At Cape Verde João Chanoca's ship ran on shore at night and was lost, but the people on board got safely to land, and after being plundered by the negroes, were rescued by the commodore.

The new captain arrived at Sofala on the 8th of September 1507, and the government was immediately transferred to him by Nuno Vaz Pereira, who embarked in the ship under Ruy Gonçalves de Valadares, that was to be sent on to Mozambique. On the 19th she and the vessels under Martim Coelho and Diogo de Mello sailed, and soon afterwards fell in with a ship under command of Jorge de Mello Pereira that had left Portugal for India before them. The greater number of her crew were helpless with scurvy, so they kept her in company and gave her as much assistance as they could. On the 24th of October they all reached Mozambique, where they found

they could go no farther until the change of the monsoon, and there they were joined in a few days by three other ships on the way to India, commanded by Fernão Soares, Filipe de Castro, and Henrique Nunes de Lião. Duarte de Mello and the other officers appointed by the king to the Mozambique establishment had been sent on with Ruy Gonçalves de Valadares to prepare stone for the buildings to be erected, and Vasco Gomes d'Abreu sent with them the plans that had been prepared in Portugal and letters to the commanders of any ships that might be there, requesting them to assist in the work, as it was for the service of the king, and he would be unable for some time to leave Sofala to direct it in person.

One and all, the captains of the various ships at anchor in the harbour entered with enthusiasm into the matter. The stone was soon quarried, lime was prepared, and then, as Vasco Gomes d'Abreu did not make his appearance, they set about building. They had plans of all that was to be done, and the parts of the structures that required skilled workmanship or foreign materials had been brought from Portugal, so that rapid progress could be made. They first erected a large and comfortable hospital with its necessary appurtenances, which would have been of the greatest advantage if the climate of the island had not been so unhealthy that serious illness was almost invariably followed by speedy death. Men afflicted with scurvy, however, arriving there during the least insalubrious months, might hope to escape the deadly fever and dysentery, and to recover from that complaint. And scurvy, it must be remembered, was in those days of long voyages and no other diet than salted provisions the disease most dreaded by Europeans frequenting the eastern seas.

A church, dedicated to Saint Gabriel, was the building next taken in hand. It is said by the early historians to have been large and well finished and ornamented, but it is probable that most of the ornamentation was done at a later date, and that little more than the walls and roof was completed at this time. A large space around it was enclosed for a cemetery, and here the graves were soon more numerous than in any other church-

yard of the Portuguese out of Europe, so great was the mortality among the sick landed from the outward bound Indian fleets, notwithstanding the care and attention bestowed upon them in the hospital.

Lastly a fort, with magazines and quarters for the officials and the garrison, was commenced. The fort was on the site of the present residence of the governor, and was nothing more than a square two-storied building, though it answered the purpose for which it was intended for more than half a century. The warehouses were large, as the king had resolved to make Mozambique a depôt from which goods should be distributed to all parts of the African coast, and to which the gold, ivory, ambergris, wax, gum, and other products of the continent should be sent to be forwarded to India or Europe. Here also were to be stored everything needed for the repair of damaged ships and supplies of provisions for such as should be in want of them. These buildings were commenced in 1507 by the men of the ships detained in the harbour by the unfavourable monsoon, and were completed after their departure by those stationed on the island, with such assistance as could be obtained from fleets that called.

Thus the island of Mozambique, which to-day is the principal seat of government of the Portuguese on the eastern coast of Africa, was taken in possession without any opposition on the part of its Mohamedan occupants. Vasco Gomes d'Abreu, to whom the task of forming the establishment there was entrusted, never saw the work that had been done. After strengthening the garrison of Sofala and landing supplies of provisions, he erected a new hall and improved the buildings in the fort, and while this was being done a caravel of forty tons burden was put together, the timber for which had been brought from Portugal ready prepared. Then having generally arranged matters at that place, he left the chief alcaide Ruy de Brito Patalim in command during his absence, and set sail with the three ships of his squadron and the caravel. Whether he intended to proceed to Mozambique or to cruise along the coast was not known, and some persons even suspected that he

designed to explore the island of Madagascar, where it was rumoured that valuable spices were to be found. Some time after he set out the fringe of one of those terrible cyclones that occasionally cause widespread destruction in the islands of the Indian sea passed over Sofala, and it was supposed that he perished in it. Nothing but a broken mainmast, which drifted on shore at Kilwa, was ever seen of any of the three ships or the caravel again.

Ruy de Brito Patalim remained in command until September 1509, when Antonio de Saldanha, whom the king appointed captain of Sofala and Mozambique when the death of Vasco Gomes d'Abreu was no longer doubtful, arrived at the gold port and took over the government. At the same time Duarte Teixeira assumed duty there as factor. It had been ascertained by experience that goods of European manufacture were not in demand by the Bantu, so that henceforward only Indian wares—chiefly calico and beads—were sent to Sofala to be bartered for gold and ivory. The calico was of a coarse but strong kind, and was sold in pieces usually termed squares, though they were about four yards in length and one in width, to be used as loin cloths. The beads were of various sorts, as the fashion in colour and size was constantly changing. These articles and some others in smaller quantities were brought from India to Mozambique in Portuguese ships, and were there stored in the king's warehouses until requisitions were sent from Sofala, Kilwa, and other trading stations, to which they were forwarded in the caravels employed on the coast.

Kilwa did not long remain a garrison town. Hadji Hocem, who had been made its *king* by Nuno Vaz Pereira, turned his whole thought to avenging the death of his father, and by means of large gifts obtained the assistance of a powerful Bantu tribe under a chief with the high-sounding name of Munhamonge, that is Lord of all. This chief with a strong army marched by land, while Hadji Hocem with as many Mohamedans as he could muster by devotion, pay, or force proceeded by sea, and together they attacked the settlement of the treacherous sheik and completely destroyed it. Munhamonge

and his followers were rewarded with most of the captives and the spoil, and Hadji Hocem was satisfied with revenge, though the sheik himself escaped.

Everywhere on the coast the Mohamedans were indignant that a man who had gained the distinction of being a hadji by making a pilgrimage to Mecca should have called in the aid of Kaffirs against people of his own faith, and should have left disciples of the koran as slaves in the hands of infidels. This indignation was increased by the haughty attitude assumed by Hocem, who, relying upon Portuguese protection, wrote to the different sheiks in the country in a tone of superiority, and by the heavy taxation which he imposed upon his subjects to make good the personal losses he had sustained by his gifts to Munhamonge. To all Mohamedans, subjects and strangers alike, he became an object of detestation. The friendly ruler of Melinde and the vassal ruler of Zanzibar, who was believed to be thoroughly loyal to King Manuel, wrote to the viceroy that if he wished for peace in the land he should deprive Hocem of power, and Dom Francisco d'Almeida, to put an end to the disturbance, instructed Pedro Ferreira Fogaça to depose the *king* of Kilwa and substitute another. This was accordingly carried into effect. Hadji Hocem, who feared assassination if he remained in his native town, merely begged to be sent to Mombasa, and there shortly afterwards he ended his days in extreme poverty and distress.

The vacant situation was first offered to the fugitive emir Abraham, whose acceptance of it would have satisfied every one; but he distrusted the Portuguese so much that he declined the overture. It was then given to Micante, the former rival of Hadji Hocem. This man's habits were those of a licentious drunkard, and he soon became as much despised by the Portuguese as hated by his subjects on account of his cruelty and his lawless amours. The consequence was that numbers of the people of Kilwa abandoned the place and joined Abraham, who was living at some distance on the mainland.

The three years term of office of Pedro Ferreira Fogaça having expired, he was succeeded by Francisco Pereira Pestana

as captain of Kilwa. This officer found affairs in great disorder, and depression ruling among the people owing to the trading regulations that were again being enforced by order of King Manuel. Foreign commerce by sea was entirely cut off, and intercourse with the Bantu was restricted as much as possible, because the king and his advisers feared that Mohamedan influence might prevent the reception of Christianity by these people. Nuno Vaz Pereira's opinion that the treasury would not suffer by allowing the inhabitants of Kilwa to barter gold as in olden times might be correct, but the pious king had the propagation of the Christian faith also at heart, and could not permit it to be endangered. And so the largest, best built, and most famous town on the East African coast, the town that once had dominion from Melinde to Cape Correntes, was dwindling away to an insignificant village.

Things were in this condition when Micante declared war against Abraham, of whom he was extremely jealous. The emir had a strong body of followers, and he obtained powerful Bantu allies, with whom he not only drove back the army sent against him, but made a descent upon Kilwa in his turn. There were at the time only forty Portuguese soldiers in the fort capable of bearing arms, all the others being ill with fever. The healthy men went to Micante's assistance, but were defeated in an engagement, and several of them were killed, though the fort was not taken. After this there were many incursions on both sides, in one of which Abraham's party suffered heavy losses as they were crossing the strait between the island and the mainland, and one of his nephews was made prisoner. Still nothing decisive occurred, and hostilities went on with no other result than destruction of property and loss of life. Micante indeed gained some respect from the Portuguese by his personal valour, and he was as submissive to them as could be desired, but otherwise there was little or no improvement in his conduct.

When information of this reached King Manuel he determined to withdraw the garrison from Kilwa, which was no longer a place of any importance either for strategic or

commercial purposes. Affonso d'Albuquerque was then governor general of India, and cared nothing about the retention of a stronghold established by Dom Francisco d'Almeida, so took no steps to change the king's decision. Orders were issued to Francisco Pereira Pestana to dismantle the fort, remove the king's property of every kind to ships provided for the purpose, and retire to Socotra with the men under his command. As Micante was entirely dependent upon the Portuguese, this order deprived him of all power and influence. He fled to Querimba, where he died in poverty and obscurity. Negotiations were opened with the emir Abraham, who at first suspected treachery, but when the Portuguese had embarked and were ready to set sail he consented to an interview on the water with Francisco Pereira Pestana, and was recognised by him as ruler of Kilwa in vassalage to King Manuel. Abraham accepted the position, and kept his agreement faithfully as long as he lived. The fugitives from the town returned, and order was restored under the emir's prudent management, but the importance and glory of the place were gone for ever. Under the stringent commercial regulations that were in force it sank almost out of sight within a very few years. Thus the first fort built and occupied by the Portuguese on the border of the Indian sea was the first abandoned by them, and that while they were still in the full career of conquest and under the direction in the east of the great Affonso d'Albuquerque.

Sofala was now the station where it was hoped the greatest profit from trade would be gained, as it was the port from which the Mohamedans had sent away all the gold and much of the ivory obtained in South-Eastern Africa. But the Portuguese were as yet without experience of the only way of obtaining these articles, and imagined that if they could prevent the former itinerant dealers from going inland and could keep up a good supply of merchandise in their factory, everything that the country produced would be brought to them for sale at their own prices. The Mohamedan mixed breeds, living like Kaffirs and caring little whether they were one month or twelve on an expedition, travelled about the

country with a few slaves carrying their wares, and if gold and ivory were not at hand, were content to wait till they were collected, all the time tempting the natives by a display of articles that they coveted most. The Portuguese, on the contrary, sat still and waited for what never came.

Among the officers who accompanied Pedro d'Anaya when he went to build the fortress and establish the factory was one named Diogo d'Alcagova, who remained there long enough to learn the condition of affairs in the country, but as he suffered much from fever, was sent to India by an early opportunity. He professed to have made a special study of the gold barter, and sent to the king a long report upon it, which is still in existence. In it he stated that in former times from four hundred and forty-six thousand eight hundred and seventy-five to five hundred and eighty thousand nine hundred and thirty-seven pounds sterling worth of gold was exported from Sofala every year. This was probably far beyond the real quantity, for considering the relative value of gold to other merchandise then and now, such an amount would have represented a trade much greater than the appearance of Sofala when first visited by Europeans would warrant one in believing it possible to have been carried on there. That little or none was brought to the Portuguese factory while he was resident in it he attributed to wars between different sections of Bantu, which made the country unsafe to travel in. Peace was not concluded between the different factions, he thought, because the Mohamedan rulers of Kilwa and Sofala, who could bring it about, were unwilling to do so, as they did not wish the Christians to obtain the profits of the trade.

In September 1508 Duarte de Lemos, an officer of ability who was then in charge of a ship, wrote to the king from Mozambique that only £894 to £1341 worth of gold had been obtained at Sofala from the departure of Vasco Gomes d'Abreu to that time. He believed that it was plentiful in the country, and there was an abundance of merchandise in the factory, still it was not brought for barter. In his opinion the reason was that the Mohamedans along the coast south of

Mozambique were all engaged in a smuggling trade, which could not be prevented, as they conveyed the gold and their goods in little boats and fishing canoes that it was not possible for the caravels guarding the sea to capture. Merchants from Arabia and Persia resorted to secluded places, and maintained this clandestine trade, providing the retail dealers with goods and receiving the gold from them in return. Even in Mozambique he believed there were some merchants from the north engaged in this traffic, so detrimental to the king's treasury. Certain it was that they purchased from the crews of ships arriving there calico which the men had for sale on their own account, and which they obtained for a mere trifle. There was but one remedy for the evil in his opinion, and that was to expel every Mohamedan from the whole country south of Mozambique. Sofala, he was assured, was not an unhealthy place, for during the preceding year not a single individual had fallen ill there. The only article of European manufacture that could be used in commerce in the country was Flemish linen, which would need to be broad enough to be used for loin cloths.

That a considerable trade was carried on by the Mohamedans with the Bantu in defiance of the Portuguese is highly probable, but that it amounted to a very large sum in gold yearly is not at all likely. The difficulty of getting goods into the country must have prevented that. The Mohamedans had always lived by commerce, and no doubt were shrewd and wary dealers, they knew the country and its people and could easily escape observation by the Christians, but without a source of supply, now that their ships were destroyed and their connection with India entirely cut off, they could not traffic to the extent the Portuguese believed they were doing. Possibly they may have dealt in a very small way in native made cloth, but even that would have necessitated their possession of beads and bangles, which they could only obtain at great risk by means of zambucos coming down from the north. According to Duarte Barbosa they were reduced to such straits that they began to cultivate cotton and manu-

facture loin-cloths themselves, but this, if correct at all, can only have been on a very limited scale.

In October 1512 Antonio de Saldanha, who had then served the full term of three years as captain of Sofala, was succeeded in that office by Simão de Miranda de Azevedo, with whom came as factor a very intelligent man named Pedro Vaz Soares. When the captain was absent on his periodical visits to Mozambique, the factor acted as commandant of the fort, and in that capacity on the 30th of June 1513 he wrote to the king a long and interesting report upon the condition of things there, which, unlike most of the documents of that period, has fortunately escaped destruction. Before this report was written a slight change had taken place in respect to commercial transactions with Mohamedans. From those at Sofala gold was now bartered in exchange for merchandise, though they could only obtain it by going inland and dealing with the Bantu, thus to that extent at least the earlier regulations had been relaxed. Mohamedans were also employed by the Christians in various capacities, though only to a limited extent, and under circumstances where no other persons could perform the same service.

Soares reported that during the eight months of his residence at Sofala he had only obtained in barter gold to the value of from £2905 to £3128, the greater part of which was procured from the Mohamedan residents. Kaffirs or native traders from the interior he had seen so seldom that from them he had not bartered £223 worth. The country was in a state of perfect peace, and every one was free to come and go in security, for the captain had made agreements to that effect with numerous Bantu chiefs and was paying them fixed subsidies every six moons to keep the trading routes open. There was gold in various parts of the country, but no one possessed a sufficient quantity to make it worth his while to bring it to Sofala for sale, therefore the Mohamedans went inland with merchandise and established fairs at suitable places. These Mohamedans secretly prejudiced the

Christians in the eyes of the Bantu, whom they discouraged from proceeding to the factory by telling them that goods were dearer there than in the interior as offered for sale by them. The gold that was procured was mostly in very small pieces like little beads, only a trifling proportion being melted into nuggets.

The receipts of the factory were not more than sufficient to cover the cost of its maintenance and that of the caravels employed on the coast below Mozambique, and on one occasion the captain was even obliged to make use of the property of deceased persons to meet current expenses. Soares was of opinion that under these circumstances retrenchment was advisable, as a smaller and less expensive establishment would serve the purpose now that the land was at peace and the Portuguese perfectly secure. The Mohamedans at the islands of Angosha and on the lower banks of the Zambesi, he asserted, drew away the greater portion of the trade, on which account they ought to be expelled, when matters would improve.

The captain Simão de Miranda de Azevedo had endeavoured to establish a trading station on the Zambesi and explore the river upward, and for that purpose had sent an embassy to a Bantu chief residing on a large island between two mouths of the stream to propose friendship and alliance with him. A favourable reply was received, upon which a caravel was despatched to the river with a quantity of merchandise and a factor and secretary. Some respectable Mohamedans of Sofala were engaged to go in her to be the means of communication with the chief, to whom presents of some value were forwarded. Upon her arrival the resident Mohamedans induced the chief to ask that her captain with the factor and secretary should visit him to ratify his agreement with the Portuguese, and when they with a bombardier who acted as interpreter went on shore for the purpose without suspicion of danger, all were immediately murdered. The Sofala Mohamedans, who were on land at the time, swam off to the caravel, which was soon afterwards attacked by a number

of zambucos containing men armed with bows and arrows. Her crew defended themselves with their crossbows and bombs, and were fortunate enough to be able to cut their cables and escape.

Soares reported that a considerable quantity of ivory was procurable, and that a very large profit was to be made on it. Since his arrival he had bartered for articles of trifling value about three tons, which had been sent to India to meet the cost of merchandise that had been applied for.

Of the affairs of Sofala during the time that Christovão de Tavora was captain, that is from 1515, when he succeeded Francisco Marecos who acted for a few months after the death of Simão de Miranda de Azevedo, to 1518, when Sancho de Toar assumed the command, nothing is known. The original reports are no longer in existence, and the early historians are silent about the place, from which, however, it may be assumed that nothing of consequence occurred. Sancho de Toar, the same officer who was sent by Pedro Alvares Cabral to gather information about the locality and the gold trade, became captain of Sofala in September 1518, and at the same time Francisco de Brito took over the duties of factor. In circumstances similar to those under which Pedro Vaz Soares reported to King Manuel six years earlier, De Brito on the 8th of August 1519 addressed to the same monarch a long letter, which is still preserved in the archives at Lisbon.

At that time trade and even communication with the interior was cut off, owing to internecine wars among Bantu clans or tribes. A powerful chief named Inyamunda, who resided at no great distance from Sofala, was engaged in hostilities with the Monomotapa, the people of Manica, and others farther inland; and the trading routes were closed, as travellers were liable to be robbed and murdered. At the factory therefore the outlay was as usual, while there was hardly any income, a condition of things which was very dispiriting to the officials. A vessel from India bringing merchandise for Sofala had arrived at Chiloeane, an island about thirty-five miles distant, and had discharged her cargo, con-

sisting of calico of different qualities, beads, pieces of tin, and small coins. The cost price of these articles is stated by the factor, and also the price at which they were bartered in Sofala when any trade was being done, from which it is seen that the smallest profit on any thing was four hundred per cent, and that on some things it rose to two thousand eight hundred per cent. The pieces of tin and the coins that were not required to pay salaries were evidently disposed of as ornaments, for money was not in use by the Bantu, all transactions with them being by barter. During the eleven months that De Brito had been factor he had obtained gold to the value of a little over £358 and eight tons and a quarter of ivory, of which the cost is not given.

Sancho de Toar had resolved to establish a trading outpost on the southern bank of the Zambesi about thirty-five miles above its mouth, and for that purpose had caused a square timber tower to be constructed, which could be taken to pieces and conveyed in caravels to its destination, there to be put together again. The completion of the plan had been delayed, however, as one of the caravels had recently been wrecked at Chilokane, and another, which had been built at Mozambique to assist in guarding the coast, had been lost on the bar when bringing a cargo of millet for the use of the fort. She had not long previously taken a prize, but had left part of the spoil at Mozambique, and the remainder was on board when she was wrecked. This had happened only a few days before the letter was written. Sancho de Toar had immediately resolved to have another caravel built, as well as a smaller vessel to be stationed at the Cuama mouth of the Zambesi to prevent the entrance of zambucos with merchandise for the Mohamedan traders. Francisco de Brito's chief desire was to get away from a place where neither honour nor profit was to be had, and he earnestly begged the king to transfer him to some other post in India.

In neither of the reports from the factors of Sofala which are still in existence is any mention made of ambergris or pearls, though Duarte Barbosa, who wrote about the same time.

states that both were articles of trade among the Mohamedans. Probably the Portuguese had not yet an opportunity to obtain them in barter, as they could so easily be concealed and removed from place to place. The pearls, obtained at the Bazaruta islands, were said to be greatly damaged and discoloured by the method used in extracting them, which was by placing the oysters in embers until the flesh was dried away. The pearl fishers were nearly all Mohamedans or slaves, as the Bantu did not engage in the occupation unless compelled to do so by extreme want.

With the report of Francisco de Brito, the substance of which has been given, direct and indirect information alike ceases concerning Sofala until some time after the death of King Manuel the Fortunate, which took place on the 13th of December 1521, and the accession of his son, João III, to the throne of Portugal. That matters there remained without much change as successive captains and factors came and went and the graves of the victims of malarial fever and dysentery grew ever more numerous is, however, certain, for the next clear view given by either historian, chronicler, or manuscript records reveals a state of things differing little from that described.

CHAPTER IX.

INTERCOURSE OF THE PORTUGUESE WITH THE BANTU.

WHEN the European fort and trading station at Sofala was formed in 1505 the predominant people in the country between the rivers Sabi and Zambesi were the Mocaranga as termed by the Portuguese, or Makalanga as pronounced by themselves, a word which means the people of the sun. This tribe occupied territory extending from the shore of the Indian ocean to the interior of the continent far to the west, but just how far it is impossible to say. Along the southern bank of the Zambesi and scattered here and there on the sea coast were clans who were not Makalanga by blood, and who were independent of each other. South of the Sabi river lived a tribe named the Batonga, whose outposts extended beyond Cape Correntes.

There are people of this name in various parts of South Africa still, but it does not follow that they are descended from the Batonga of the sixteenth century. The country has often been swept by war since that time, and of the ancient communities many have been absolutely destroyed, while others have been dispersed and reorganised quite differently. There is not a single tribe in South Africa to-day that bears the same title, has the same relative power, and occupies the same ground, as its ancestors three hundred years ago. The people we call Mashona are indeed descended from the Makalanga of early Portuguese days, and they preserve their old name and part of their old country, but the contrast between their condition and that of the tribe in the period of its greatness is striking. Discord, subjection, and merciless treatment from conquerors have destroyed most of what was good in their forefathers.

This tribe—the Makalanga—was the one with which the Portuguese had most to do. Its paramount chief was called by them the monomotapa, which word, their writers state, meant emperor, but in reality it was only one of the hereditary titles originally given by the official praisers to the great chief, and meant either master of the mountain or master of the mines. The Portuguese were not very careful in the orthography of Bantu names, and in those early days they had not discovered the rules which govern the construction of the language, so that probably monomotapa does not represent the exact sound as spoken by the natives, though most likely it approximates closely to it. About the first part of the word there is no uncertainty. In one of the existing dialects *mong* means master or chief, in another *omuhona* has the same meaning. The plural of *mong* is *beng*, and one of the Portuguese writers gives the word as *benomotapa*, evidently from having heard it used by natives in a plural form. Another Portuguese writer, in relating the exploits of the chief Munhamonge, says that word meant master of the world, and his statement is perfectly correct. Thus monomotapa (more likely mnamatapa) meant chief of something, but what that something was is not so certain.

It seems on analysing it to be chief of the mountain, and there are other reasons for believing that to be its correct signification. The great place, or residence of the monomotapa, was close to the mountain Fura, which he would never permit a Portuguese to ascend, probably from some superstition connected with it, though they believed it was because he did not wish them to have a view over as much of his country as could be seen from its top. The natives, when going to the great place, most likely used the expression going to the mountain, for the Portuguese soon began to employ the words *á serra* in that sense, without specially defining what mountain was meant. In our own time one of the titles given by the official praisers to the Basuto chief Moshesh was chief of the mountain, owing to his possession of Thaba Bosigo, and the Kalanga chief probably had his title of monomotapa from his possession of Fura.

But there is another possible explanation of the word, which would give it a much more romantic origin. It may have meant chief of the mines, for the termination, slightly altered in form, in one of the Bantu dialects signifies a large hole in the ground. In this case the title may have come down from a very remote period, and may have originated with the ancient gold-workers who mixed their blood with the ancestors of the Kalanga people. This is just possible, but it is so unlikely that it is almost safe to translate the word *monomotapa*, *manamotupa*, *manomotapa*,—as different Portuguese writers spelt it,—chief of the mountain. In any case it signified the paramount or great chief of the Kalanga tribe, and was applied to all who in succession held that office.

Some interest is attached to this word *Monomotapa*, inasmuch as it was placed on maps of the day as if it was the name of a territory, not the title of a ruler, and soon it was applied to the entire region from the Zambesi to the mouth of the Fish river. Geographers, who knew nothing of the country, wrote the word upon their charts, and one copied another until the belief became general that a people far advanced in civilisation, and governed by a mighty emperor, occupied the whole of South-Eastern Africa.

Then towns were marked on the chart, and rivers were traced upon it, and men of the highest standing in science lent their names to the fraud, believing it to be true, until a standard map of the middle of the seventeenth century was as misleading as it was possible to make it. Readers of Portuguese histories must have known this, but no one rectified the error, because no one could substitute what was really correct. And even in recent years educated men have asked what has become of the mysterious empire of Monomotapa, a question that can be so easily answered by reading the books of De Barros, De Couto, and Dos Santos, and analysing the Sekalanga words which they repeat. Such an empire never existed. The foundation upon which imagination constructed it was nothing more than a Bantu tribe. The error arose mainly from the use of the words emperor, king, and prince to represent African chiefs, a mistake,

however, which was not confined to the Portuguese, for it pervades a good deal of English literature of the nineteenth century, where it has done infinitely more to mislead readers than those expressions ever did in times gone by.

The Kalanga tribe was larger and occupied a much greater extent of territory than any now existing in South Africa. It was held together by the same means as the others, that is principally by the religious awe with which the paramount chief was regarded, as representing in his person the mighty spirits that were feared and worshipped. There was always the danger of a disputed succession, however, when it might not be certain which of two or more individuals was nearest to the line of descent and therefore the one to whom fealty was due. How long the tribe had existed before the Portuguese became acquainted with it, and whether it had attained its greatness by growth or by conquest, cannot be ascertained, but very shortly afterwards it was broken into several independent communities.

The tribe belonged to that section of the Bantu family which in general occupies the interior of the country. It was divided into a great number of clans, each under its own chief, and though all of these acknowledged the monomotapa as their superior in rank, the distant clans, even with the religious bond of union in full force, were very loosely connected with the central government. Thus those near the coast were found by the Portuguese making war on their own account, and acting otherwise in a manner that among Europeans would be regarded as indicating perfect independence. There was one peculiar custom, however, that prevented them from forgetting their dependence upon the paramount chief, a custom that most likely had a foreign origin. Every year at a certain stage of the crops a command was sent throughout the country that when the next new moon appeared all the fires were to be put out, and they could only be lit again from the spreading of one kindled by the monomotapa himself.

The Makalanga had developed their religious system and their industries more highly than any of the other tribes of

Southern or Eastern Africa. Of all the Bantu they had the largest proportion of Asiatic blood in their veins, which will account for their mental and mechanical superiority. Almost at first sight the Europeans observed that they were in every respect more intelligent than the blacker tribes along the Mozambique coast. But they were neither so robust nor so courageous as many of their neighbours. Like their near kindred the Basuto and Bapedi of to-day, they were capable of making a vigorous defence in mountain strongholds, but were disinclined to carry on aggressive warfare, and could not stand against an equal number of men of a coast tribe in the open field. Their language was regarded by the Christians as being pleasanter than Arabic to the ear. The residence of each important chief was called his zimbabwe, which the Portuguese writers say meant the place where the court was held, though the buildings were merely thatched huts with wattled walls covered with clay. The word was equivalent to "the great place" as now used, though the roots from which it was derived are not absolutely certain.

When the Portuguese in 1505 first came in close contact with the Makalanga, the tribe had been engaged in civil war for twelve or thirteen years, and was in a very unsettled condition. A monomotapa, Mokomba by name, had made a favourite of the chief Tshikanga, one of his distant relatives, who was hereditary head of the powerful clan which occupied the district of Manika. Some other chiefs became jealous of the privileges conferred upon this man, and took advantage of his absence on one occasion to instil in the monomotapa's mind that he was a sorcerer and was compassing the death of his benefactor. Thereupon the monomotapa sent him some poison to drink, but instead of obeying, he made an offer of a large number of cattle for his life. The offer was declined, and then in despair he collected his followers, made a quick march to the great place, surprised Mokomba, and killed him.

Tshikanga then assumed the government of the tribe. He endeavoured to exterminate the family of his predecessor, and actually put twenty-one of Mokomba's children to death.

Only one young man escaped. After four years' exile, this one, whose name is variously given as Kesarinuto or Kesarimyo, returned and collected a force which defeated the usurping monomotapa's army. Tshikanga then took the field himself, adherents gathered on both sides, and a battle was fought which continued for three days and a half. On the fourth day Tshikanga was killed, when his army dispersed, and Kesarimyo became monomotapa. But Tolwa, Tshikanga's son, would not submit, and with his ancestral clan kept possession of the Manika district, and carried on the war. To this circumstance the Portuguese attributed the small quantity of gold that was brought to Sofala for sale. In course of time the war was reduced to a permanent feud, Tolwa's clan became an independent tribe, and Manika was lost to the monomotapa for ever.

For many years after their occupation of Sofala the Portuguese lived on fairly good terms with the Makalanga, and after the failure to drive them from the fort in Isuf's time no attempt was made to expel them from the country. They paid subsidies in the form of presents to the nearest chiefs of note, and so secured their good will and freedom for trade. These presents usually consisted of beads, bangles, pieces of coarse calico, and other inexpensive articles, so that the value of the whole was trifling. In return the chiefs sent a tusk or two of ivory, which was often worth as much as what they received.

But even after the employment of the Mohamedans as agents to collect gold and ivory, the amount of commerce carried on was very far short of the earlier anticipations of the Europeans. Their next effort to increase it was by stationing individuals at outposts on the Zambesi, which at first were quite unprotected, and existed entirely by the favour of the people in whose lands they were situated. After various ineffectual attempts by other officials, in 1531 Vicente Pegado, the ablest and most enterprising of all the early captains of Mozambique and Sofala, who had then resided a year in the country, succeeded in establishing a fair at the place afterwards known as Sena, where there was a small Mohamedan village. The particulars of this event are

not now on record in manuscript that can be found, and the historians of the time were so deeply engrossed with the stirring deeds of their countrymen in India that they altogether neglected transactions of comparatively little importance in South Africa, but no imagination is needed to understand how it must have taken place. The Bantu would certainly not object to the presence of unarmed traders, and the Mohamedans, who at an earlier date would have acted either as open or secret enemies, were then in a condition of dependence upon the Portuguese. The contraband trade, as the Europeans termed it, had been almost completely suppressed. There was but one place where foreign merchandise could be obtained, and that was the king's warehouse at Sofala. The factor there, acting under instructions from his government, fixed the price of everything and required an enormous profit on whatever he bought or sold, but a portion of the retail bartering with the Bantu was again in the hands of those who had once enjoyed a monopoly of it. So the Mohamedans at Sena would not object to getting their supplies at home, instead of going to Sofala for them, and besides it was to their interest not to offend their employers. Thus the fair or trading-post of Sena came into existence, and the quantity of ivory and gold obtained was so much increased that the captain Vicente Pegado was rewarded for his exertions by being retained in office for the unusual term of eight years.

The exact date of the formation of a similar outstation at Tete cannot be ascertained, but it was not long after the establishment of the fair farther down the river. At both these places for many years white men lived in the same precarious manner as the first English traders in the Xosa country three centuries later. Favoured by the chief one day, abused and robbed by him the next, nothing but the prospect of considerable gain could induce any others than missionaries to exist in such a condition. Those at Sena and Tete were of the class that accommodates itself readily to barbarian habits, and in morals at least were little above the Bantu with whom they associated.

In 1544 the factory of Quilimane was founded on the northern bank of the river of Good Tokens, about fifteen miles from the

sea. The object was partly to carry on commerce with the Bantu in the neighbourhood, but principally to command the route to the interior by that stream, which was then more used during several months of the year than the other outlets of the Zambesi. The station is still in existence, but as it is beyond the territorial limits dealt with in this narrative, it will not be referred to again.

In the same year the captain of Sofala and Mozambique sent two men named Lourenço Marques and Antonio Caldeira in a pangayo on an exploring voyage to the southward. They inspected the lower course of the Limpopo river, and ascertained that copper in considerable quantities was to be obtained there from the natives. They then examined the great bay which before that time had been obscurely known as Da Lagoa. Three large rivers flowing from different directions,—known now to British geographers as the Maputa, the English, and the Manisa,—discharge their waters into this bay, and it was believed that the central one of these, or rather the central one of the streams now called the Tembe, the Umbelosi, and the Matola, which have as their estuary the English river, had its source in a great lake far in the interior, hence the Umbelosi and the English were named Rio da Lagoa, and the bay Bahia da Lagoa.

On the banks of the Umbelosi the explorers saw a great number of elephants, and purchased tusks of ivory from the natives at the rate of a few beads for each. In the neighbourhood of the Maputa river, which they next visited, elephants were also seen, and ivory was plentiful. The chief of the tribe that occupied the country between this river and the sea, whose hereditary title was Inyaka, was very friendly to his European visitors. Though quite black, he was a fine looking old man, with a white beard, and as Marques and Caldeira fancied his features bore some resemblance to those of Garcia de Sá, then captain of Malacca, who was subsequently—1548–9—captain general and governor of India, and one of whose daughters, Dona Leonor, wife of Manuel de Sousa de Sepulveda, in 1552 perished in a most pitiable manner on the shore of this very bay, they gave him that official's name. We shall meet him again,

particularly in the account of the wreck of the galleon *São João*, and shall find that his friendship for white people was not a mere passing whim.

The inspection of the country around the bay was followed by a change of names. The Umbelosi—with its estuary the English river—was thereafter termed by the Portuguese Rio de Lourenço Marques, though geographers of other nations continued to call it the river De Lagoa, until the restoration in recent years of its Bantu name. The bay—previously Bahia da Lagoa—now took the name among the Portuguese of Bahia de Lourenço Marques, though to all other Europeans it remained known as Delagoa Bay, and it is still so called.

In 1546 King João III issued instructions that Lourenço Marques should be provided with a suitable vessel to complete the exploration of the coast and to open up a trade with the residents on the shores of the great inlet. This was done, and thereafter a pangayo was usually sent every year or every second year from Mozambique to obtain ivory. While they were engaged in bartering by means of boats manned by mixed breeds or Mohamedans that went up the different rivers, the traders resided on one of the islands Inyaka—so called by the Portuguese from the title of the chief Garcia de Sá,—Elephant, or Shefina, where some rough huts were built for their accommodation, and as soon as all the tusks that had been collected by the natives were purchased, they returned to Mozambique. No permanent factory or fort was built at this place until a much later date. Lourenço Marques probably remained some years in charge of the trade at the bay which bore his name, as in 1557, in reward for his services there, he was appointed intendant at Cochin.

At Inhambane, or Nyambana as termed by the natives, which is about two hundred and thirty miles farther up the coast, a similar trade was carried on from this time forward by means of a pangayo sent every year or two from Mozambique. Temporary huts were erected on the site of the present village, off which the pangayo lay at anchor until the traders were ready to return. Neither here nor at Delagoa Bay, any more than at Sena or Tete,

did the Portuguese authorities attempt to exercise the slightest control over the Bantu inhabitants. Their object at all these places was simply and solely to carry on commerce, and not by any means to involve themselves in difficulties. At times indeed the traders were subject to gross ill treatment from barbarous chiefs, which they were obliged to endure patiently, without any effort being made to retaliate or redress their wrongs.

After trade at these places was opened, from thirty to thirty-six tons of ivory were usually collected at Mozambique and sent from that island to India every year until 1551, when only a little more than five tons was obtained. The quantity subsequently rose again, but fluctuated greatly according to the condition of the country as regarded peace or war.

The Portuguese, whether soldiers or traders, were in South Africa so circumstanced that they degenerated rapidly. A European female was very rarely seen, and nearly every white man consorted with native women. Fever, when it did not kill them outright, deprived them of energy, and there was nothing to stimulate them to exertion. Cut off from all society but that of barbarians, often until towards the close of the sixteenth century without the ministrations of the church, sunk in sloth, and suffering from excessive heat and deadly malaria, no lives led by Europeans anywhere could be more miserable than theirs.

The natives termed them *Bazunga*,—singular *Mozunga*,—and were generally well disposed towards them. Individual white men often gained the confidence of chiefs, and exercised great influence over them. Instances were not wanting of such persons abandoning their former associates, and going to reside permanently either on tracts of land presented to them, where they became petty rulers, or at native *kraals*, where they held authority of some kind under the chiefs. Thereafter they were regarded as renegades, though their mode of living was little worse than that of many of their countrymen at the fort and trading stations.

This was the condition of affairs in South-Eastern Africa during the reign of King João III, a period far less glorious in

the history of Portugal than that in which his father Manuel the Fortunate sat upon the throne. To outward appearance the country exhibited every mark of prosperity, and its commerce and wealth were the wonder of Europe, but the zenith of its greatness was passed before the sixteenth century had run half its course. The king had many sons, but all died in childhood except the youngest, Dom João, who married the infanta Joana, daughter of the emperor Charles V. He died in early manhood, on the 2nd of January 1554, eighteen days before his widow gave birth to a boy, who received the name Sebastião. On the 16th of June 1557 this child of little more than three years of age became by his grandfather's death sovereign of Portugal, and as his mother had retired to Spain, his grandmother, Dona Catharina, daughter of Philippe I of Castile and widow of the deceased monarch, became regent of the kingdom.

Corruption had by this time become so general among the Portuguese in India that even a virtuous viceroy such as Dom João de Castro was powerless to check it. They retained indeed the daring spirit of their fathers, so that military prowess was conspicuous still, but beyond that avarice had become their ruling passion. To collect wealth, whether honestly or dishonestly hardly mattered, had become the great object of their lives, and as power was theirs, under such circumstances good government was impossible. Even at this early period the rapacity of the officials was preparing Portuguese India for the fate that overtook it as soon as a rival European power dealt it a puny blow. Eastern Africa was included in India, and if a course of spoliation was not practised there, the reason was that no weak peoples other than the Mohamedans existed sufficiently wealthy to be despoiled.

Before 1545 Mozambique had been without other protection than the slight defensive works constructed when the island was first occupied. In that year Dom João de Castro put in there on his way to Goa to assume the government of India, and was struck with the weakness of a place of such importance. In his opinion the position of the so-called fort was not only bad in a military point of view, but was insanitary as well. He selected

another site, gathered some materials, and during his short stay constructed a small outwork for temporary use. Upon his report of the condition of the island reaching Lisbon, the king gave order for larger and better defensive works to be built, but the death of the eminent viceroy followed soon afterwards, and the matter was then allowed to fall out of sight.

The power that Portugal had to contend with now in the eastern seas was the Grand Turk, in the zenith of his pride, and aided always openly or secretly by one or other Mohamedan state. To put a fleet upon the waters of the Indian ocean, every part of the material, wood, iron, cordage, and canvas, had to be conveyed up the Nile to Cairo, and thence on the backs of camels to the shipyards of Suez, a seemingly impossible task. Yet that it could be done had been proved by the sultan Soleiman II in 1527, and still more conspicuously in 1538. On the 22nd of June of this year the faithless and ferocious pasha Soleiman, who had governed Egypt for the sultan at Constantinople, sailed from Suez with a great fleet built of materials so transported from European Turkey, having with him a powerful force of janizaries. His siege of the fort of Diu—4th September to 5th November 1538—and its heroic defence by Antonio da Silveira with only six hundred men, most of whom lost their lives before Soleiman withdrew discomfited to commit suicide rather than be put to death by his master for having failed in the enterprise, must be regarded as among the most memorable events in the history of India. This Antonio da Silveira who, with only forty men left capable of bearing arms, with his ammunition exhausted and his provisions consumed, saw from his battered and half destroyed fort the remnant of the Turkish fleet sail away, had been captain of Sofala and Mozambique from 1524 to 1527, but had there no opportunity of distinguishing himself in any way.

From the time of the pasha Soleiman's defeat onward Turkish subjects in smaller force were encountered, sometimes in one place, sometimes in another, allied with Indian princes; and it was apprehended that an attempt to secure the eastern commerce might again be made by them with a very powerful

armament. To be prepared for such an occurrence, in 1558 among other measures the regent Dona Catharina resolved to construct a fortress of the first class at Mozambique, and to make the island the residence of the highest official in authority on the African coast. Previously there had been no permanent garrison, and the captain had resided during the greater part of the year at Sofala, which was regarded as the more important place of the two. Henceforth each was to have a captain, but the one at Sofala was to be subordinate to the one at Mozambique.

To plan the new fortress, an engineer architect was sent out who was a nephew of the archbishop of Braga, and had learned his profession in Flanders. He selected as the best site the eastern extremity of the island, off which ships passed to and from the anchorage, and there on the margin of the sea he laid the foundations of the massive walls that afterwards arose. The fortress was quadrilateral in form, with a bastion at each angle, and was so large that from eighty to a hundred guns could be mounted on its ramparts. The whole structure was termed Fort São Sebastião, but the outwork at each angle had its own name, the one first passed when coming in from sea being called Nossa Senhora, the one nearest the anchorage São João, the landward one on the inner side of the island São Gabriel, and the landward one on the outer side Santo Antonio. The walls were of great height, which subsequent experience proved to be disadvantageous. A work of such magnitude, though the heaviest labour was performed by slaves, required many skilled artisans, and could only be slowly carried on. The political condition of Portugal also retarded progress, so that the sixteenth century was nearly ended before the walls and the numerous buildings they enclosed were fully finished. The want of fresh water was at first regarded as its principal defect, but this was remedied in course of time by the construction of enormous cisterns, which contained an ample supply to last from one rainy season to another.

After laying out the fortress at Mozambique and preparing plans for carrying on the work, the architect proceeded to

Daman to perform a similar duty there. After that was done he returned to Europe and entered a religious order, when he was favoured by Philippe II of Spain, and from his designs parts of the Escorial were constructed. Thus in Fort São Sebastião there exists a specimen of the highest skill of the sixteenth century.

The conversion of the heathen to Christianity was from the very beginning of the Portuguese explorations and settlements in Africa and India kept constantly in view by the king and by the authorities of the Roman catholic church, but the far East offered the most promising field to the Franciscans, Dominicans, and other long established religious orders, and there were no men to spare for the enlightenment of the barbarous tribes between the Zambesi and the bay of Lourenço Marques. The whole territory east of the Cape of Good Hope to Japan had formed a single see since March 1539, when Dom João d'Albuquerque assumed duty at Goa as first bishop of India. But even the Portuguese themselves were neglected in Africa, for the garrison of Sofala was seldom provided with a chaplain, and Sena and Tete were left altogether without one.

On the 27th of September 1540, however, a bull was issued by Pope Paul III, approving of the order founded by Ignatius Loyola, and the Company of Jesus, the greatest and most zealous of all the missionary associations of the Roman catholic church, came into existence. Within seven months, on the 7th of April 1541, the celebrated Francisco Xavier sailed from Lisbon for India, and he was soon followed by others into various parts of the heathen world. The first college of the order was founded at Coimbra by João III of Portugal in 1542, and speedily attracted within its walls many of the most religious and most energetic of the youth of the kingdom. Into this college in 1543 a young man of noble parentage, named Gonçalo da Silveira, a native of Almeirim on the Tagus, sought admission for the purpose of completing his education. Shortly afterwards he entered the order, and in 1556 was sent to Goa. There he became conspicuous for his zeal and general ability, and it was mainly owing to his exertions that the magnificent

church of São Thomé was built in the capital of Portuguese India.

On one of the voyages of the little vessel that went occasionally from Mozambique to Inhambane to purchase ivory, a son of a chief of some importance was induced to return in her. It was the custom to treat such persons with much attention, in order to secure their friendship, and the young chief was greatly pleased with the favours that he received. In course of time he professed his belief in Christianity, and was baptized with all the pomp that was possible in the church of São Gabriel, the captain of Sofala and Mozambique being one of his godfathers. When the vessel made her next voyage he returned to Inhambane, and induced his father to send a request to the Portuguese captain that he might be supplied with missionaries. This request was forwarded to Goa, where it was referred to the provincial of the Jesuits, with the result that the fathers Gonçalo da Silveira and André Fernandes, with the lay brother André da Costa, were directed to proceed to South-Eastern Africa, and attempt to convert the natives there to Christianity. Dom Gonçalo was the head of the party, and was entrusted by the viceroy Dom Constantino de Bragança with friendly messages and presents for the chief who had made the application and for the paramount ruler of the Makalanga tribe.

On the 2nd of January 1560 the missionaries sailed from Chaul, and after a pleasant passage reached Mozambique on the 4th of February, where they found a trading vessel nearly ready to sail for Inhambane. She was only a zambuco, with so little accommodation that, as one of them wrote, they could neither lie down comfortably, stand erect, or exercise their legs in her, but on the 12th of February they embarked, together with two Portuguese—one of whom was to be their guide—and a native who was well acquainted with the coast. The zambuco was to touch at Sofala on the way. At this place they arrived after a passage of twenty-seven days, and here they secured the service of a halfbreed born at the fort, named João Raposo, who spoke Portuguese and Sekalanga with equal fluency, and who was a handy man in other respects, as he had travelled much in the

country. After five days' stay at Sofala, the zambuco sailed again, and eight days later reached Inhambane, where five Portuguese were found trading for ivory.

Dom Gonçalo and the lay brother were suffering severely from fever, and landed in such a debilitated condition that for a time their lives were despaired of. Their countrymen, however, took such care of them that shortly they began to mend, and as soon as they were out of danger the father André Fernandes was sent in advance to the kraal of the chief who had applied for missionaries, to announce their arrival and to request that carriers might be provided to convey the others in hammocks. The distance of the kraal from Inhambane is stated to have been thirty leagues, but as the father André Fernandes and those with him traversed it on foot in three days and a half, it can hardly have been so far. The name of the place is given by the missionaries as Otongwe, and of the chief as Gamba. He was the head of a clan of Makalanga that had been driven from its own country in a war with its neighbours, and had taken refuge in territory occupied by the Batonga, where it had acquired a right of possession by force of arms. This condition of things at once accounts for its desire to secure the friendship of the Portuguese. Father André Fernandes and João Raposo, who was with him, were provided with a hut to live in, and carriers were despatched who brought up the others seventeen days later. Dom Gonçalo and André da Costa arrived so weak that they could hardly stand, but the father soon became stronger, and the lay brother was sent back to the coast for a time to recuperate.

Shortly after their arrival the mission party—the first in South Africa—witnessed a striking instance of the nature of the heathenism they had come to destroy. A son of the chief had just died, and the witchfinder had pointed out an individual as guilty of having caused his death by treading in his footprints, whereupon the man accused was tortured and killed. They found, too, people in the last stages of sickness abandoned by every one, even their nearest relatives, who feared that death—the invisible destroyer—might seize them as well as the decrepit, if they were close at hand when he came.

Having delivered the complimentary message of the viceroy and his present, the missionaries were very well treated. Huts were given to them to live in, and they were supplied with abundance of food. They commenced therefore without delay to exhort the people to become Christians. There is a custom of the Bantu, with which they were of course unacquainted, not to dispute with honoured guests, but to profess agreement with whatever is stated. This is regarded by those people as politeness, and it is carried to such an absurd extent that it is often difficult to obtain correct information from them. Thus if one asks a man, is it far to such a place? politeness requires him to reply it is far, though it may be close by. The questioner, by using the word far, is supposed to be under the impression that it is at a distance, and it would be rudeness to correct him. They express their thanks for whatever is told to them, whether the intelligence is pleasing or not, and whether they believe it or not. Then, too, no one of them ever denies the existence of a Supreme Being, but admits it without hesitation as soon as he is told of it, though he may not once have thought of the subject before.

The missionaries must have been deceived by these habits of the people, for they were convinced that their words had taken deep root, and within a very short time they baptized about four hundred individuals at the kraal, including the chief and his family. The chief received the name Constantino, his principal wife Isabel, and his sons and councillors the names of leading Portuguese nobles. It is not easy to analyse the thoughts of those uncultivated barbarians, but certainly what they understood by this ceremony must have been something very different from what the missionaries understood by it.

After a sojourn of only seven weeks at Ootongwe, Dom Gonçalo da Silveira returned to Inhambane, leaving behind him the other members of the mission and what he believed to be an infant Christian community. The little vessel had taken in the cargo obtained in barter, and the Portuguese traders, who were ready to go on board, were waiting for him. The missionary embarked with them, the sails were set, and he proceeded to Mozambique to prepare for a visit to the Monomotapa.

Having made his arrangements with the assistance of the captain Pantaleão de Sá, on the 18th of September 1560 he left the island again with the Kalanga country as his destination. He was accompanied by six Portuguese, one of whom, Antonio Dias by name, was a competent interpreter. The zambuco in which he was a passenger touched at the mouth of the Kilimane, and then proceeded to the Cuama, up which she made her way to Sena. From ten to fifteen Portuguese and a few Indian Christians were found at this place, living in the most dissolute manner. There was no resident clergyman, so during the two months that he remained here waiting for a reply to a message that he sent to the Monomotapa, he pursued his calling and induced some of his countrymen to amend their habits, besides which he baptized about five hundred natives, mostly servants and slaves of the Europeans. At Sena he was joined by a Portuguese resident of Tete, named Gomes Coelho, who was living on terms of friendship with the paramount Kalanga chief, and who was conversant with his language.

At length a reply was received from the Monomotapa, inviting the missionary to visit him, so he and his attendants set out over land for Tete, sending their luggage and other goods up the river in boats. At Tete a stay was made only sufficiently long to engage more native carriers, and the party then proceeded onward, forming quite a little caravan. Gomes Coelho remained at the river to attend to any forwarding business that was to be done, as he had ascertained that his presence with Dom Gonçalo would not be needed. The road was long, and food became so scarce that they were glad to get any kind of edible wild plants, but on the 26th of December they reached their destination in safety.

At the kraal of the great chief there was living at this time a Portuguese adventurer named Antonio Caiado, one of a class of men met with then as now, who, while retaining affection for the country of their birth, can make themselves perfectly at home among barbarians. Caiado had ingratiated himself with the Monomotapa, and was a councillor of rank and principal military authority in the tribe. He was deputed by the chief to wait

upon the strangers, to bid them welcome as messengers from the viceroy of India, and to offer their leader a present of gold dust, cattle, and female slaves, as a token of friendship. The missionary declined the present, but in such a way as not to give offence, and shortly afterwards the great chief admitted him to an interview. He was received with all possible honour as an ambassador from the viceroy, who, from accounts of previous Portuguese visitors to the great place, was believed to be a potentate of enormous wealth and power. The message of friendship and the present which he brought gave great satisfaction. Food and huts for himself and his retinue were offered and accepted with thanks, but the African chief was surprised when the missionary, so unlike all other white men he had met, courteously declined to accept the gold and female companions pressed upon him.

The same mistake was made here as at Gamba's kraal, the missionary addressed the chief and his assembled people through an interpreter, they professed to believe what he said, and allowed themselves to be baptized. This took place within a month from the date of his arrival. The Monomotapa was a mere youth, and one of his half brothers, Tshepute by name, was in revolt against him. The insurgent had taken the title of Kiteve, and was in possession of a broad tract of territory along the coast from Sofala to the Tendankulu river, in which he was quite independent. Under these circumstances it was evidently the interest of the Monomotapa and his adherents to do nothing to offend any one who offered him friendship, especially one who represented a powerful, though distant ruler. Looking at the matter in this light, there is nothing strange in what occurred. The Monomotapa received at his baptism the name Sebastião, and his mother at hers Maria. Some three hundred of his councillors, attendants, and followers were baptized with him.

The chief evidently thought his visitors would not make a long stay, and he was very willing to entertain them for a few weeks and please them to the best of his ability, but shortly after his baptism he began to get weary of their presence. He had no intention whatever of abandoning any of the customs of

his race, and was irritated when the missionary urged him to do so. Some Mohamedan refugees from Mozambique, who were staying with him, took advantage of his growing coldness to persuade him that Silveira was a mighty sorcerer. They reminded him of the loss of the presents which the officials of Sofala had made to his predecessors, and that Dom Gonçalo had been in Tshepute's country, from which they inferred that he had left people behind him there and had come in advance as a spy to ascertain the condition of the land and bewitch the people in it. In the end they so worked upon his credulity and his fear that he resolved if the missionary would not leave to put him to death, with which resolution Dom Gonçalo was made acquainted. He, however, declined to remove, and took no other precautions than to give some articles that he regarded as sacred to Caiado, with an injunction to preserve them from injury. In the belief that he was making converts he was willing to face death, and presently he baptized fifty individuals who expressed a desire to become Christians, probably for the sake of the beads and pieces of calico that he distributed among them. This was regarded by the Monomotapa as a defiance of his authority, and in his wrath he issued orders to a party of men, who strangled the missionary during the night of the 16th of March 1561 and cast his dead body into the river Monsengense. The newly baptized narrowly escaped the same fate.

A drought of some duration occurred not long afterwards, and was followed by a great plague of locusts. Caiado and other Portuguese now persuaded the chief that these evils were consequences of the murder of Silveira, so he caused the principal Mohamedans who had poisoned his mind towards the missionary to be put to death.

Father André Fernandes and the lay brother André da Costa had been left by Dom Gonçalo at Gamba's kraal Otongwe. Whether the lay brother died or left the country is unknown: in numerous letters written by Father Fernandes at a little later date neither he nor João Raposo is mentioned, and the father refers to himself as being quite alone. It was truly a wretched condition for a European to be in, especially as it soon became

evident that the supposed converts were altogether indisposed to lay aside their old customs or to submit to ecclesiastical discipline. They would not abandon polygamy, or the belief in charms, or the practice of divination, or punishment of persons charged with dealing in witchcraft, and were greatly offended with the preaching of the missionary against their habits. They had a custom also—which still exists—that when a man died his brothers should take his widows and raise up a family for him, and this the missionary denounced to their great annoyance. At length matters reached a climax. There was a drought in the country, and the chief Gamba, who was also the rainmaker of his clan, went through the ordinary ceremonies to obtain a downpour. For doing this Father Fernandes openly and fearlessly rebuked him before his people, with the result that whatever influence he had before was now at an end. He had nothing left to buy food with, and at times was nearly starved. Neglected, often fever-stricken, regarded as a wizard to be avoided, after a residence of over two years at Otongwe he received instructions from his provincial to return to Goa, and so he left a country in which under the circumstances then existing he must have perished had he remained longer, without a chance of doing any good. Making his way as best he could to Inhambane, he proceeded to Mozambique in the trading vessel, and there embarked in a ship which conveyed him in an extremely debilitated condition to the convent of his order in Goa.

Thus ended the first mission to the Bantu of South Africa. It is possible that some traces of the doctrine of the teachers may have remained, for instance a belief in the existence of the devil; but as far as the introduction of Christian morals is concerned the mission had no result whatever. Without something beyond natural agency it could not have been otherwise among people such as the Makalanga at that time, whose race instinct was exceedingly strong, and whose political and social system was based upon ideas utterly antagonistic to those of Europeans.

CHAPTER X.

DISASTROUS EXPEDITIONS UNDER BARRETO AND HOMEM.

DONA CATHARINA acted as regent of Portugal until 1562, when she retired and the cardinal Dom Henrique, younger brother of King João III, took her place. While he was head of the government nothing worthy of mention occurred in South-Eastern Africa. It was his intention to station at Mozambique an ecclesiastical administrator, with authority almost equal to that of a bishop, and a bull was obtained from the pope for the purpose. The archbishop of Goa gave his consent to the separation from his diocese of the territory from the Cape of Good Hope to Melinde. The licentiate Manuel Coutinho, one of the royal chaplains, received the appointment, with a salary of about 80*l.* a year from the 1st of April 1563. But something occurred to prevent the plan being carried into execution, and it was not revived until half a century later.

In 1568 Dom Sebastião, though only in his fifteenth year, was declared to be of age, and was crowned king of Portugal, then an absolute monarchy. His was a strange character: gloomy, but adventurous to the last degree, deeply religious according to the standard of his time, but wilful and vain, brave as any warrior who ever held lance in hand, but rash as the most imprudent of those crusaders whom in many respects he greatly resembled. He had hardly assumed the reins of government when he resolved to create a vast dominion in Africa south of the Zambesi, a dominion which in wealth and importance would rival that of Castile in the countries subjected to that crown by the daring of Cortes and Pizarro.

Ever since the establishment of the trading station at Sofala a quantity of gold had been obtained yearly in commerce, but that quantity was so small as to be disappointing. Compared with the wealth which flowed into Spain from Mexico and Peru it was almost as nothing. Yet the belief was general in Portugal that the mines of South Africa were as rich as those of America, and that if possession of them was taken, boundless wealth would be obtained.

Were not these the mines from which the queen of Sheba got the gold which she presented to King Solomon? said the Portuguese enthusiasts. Was not Masapa the ancient Ophir? Why even then the Kalanga Kaffirs called the mountain close to the residence of their great chief Fura, and the Arabs called it Aufur, what was that but a corruption of Ophir? There, at Abasia, close to Masapa and to the mountain Fura, was a mine so rich that there were seldom years in which nuggets worth four thousand cruzados (1904*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*)* were not taken from it. Then there were the mines of Manika and far distant Butua, worked only by Bantu, who neither knew how to dig nor had the necessary tools. Only by washing river sand and soil in pools after heavy rains, these barbarians obtained all the gold that was purchased at Sofala and the smaller stations: what would not be got if civilised Europeans owned the territory? For it was to be borne in mind that the Bantu were extremely indolent, that when any one of them obtained sufficient gold to supply his immediate wants, he troubled himself about washing the soil no longer.

All this and more of the same nature was exciting the minds of the people of Portugal, and was reflected in the glowing pages of their writers. It was therefore a highly popular enterprise that the boy king was about to embark upon, one in which he could employ the best men and much

* The weight of the cruzado of King Sebastião is given to me by the curator of the coin department of the British Museum as 58·7 grains Troy, and its purity as practically the same as that of English gold. I have therefore estimated it at 114·28*d.*

of the wealth of the country without a murmur from any one. Before the necessary preparations were made, however, the pious sovereign submitted to a board termed the table of conscience the question whether aggressive warfare against the native ruler of the coveted territory would be lawful and just. The reply must have been foreseen, but it would relieve the monarch of personal moral responsibility in the eyes of Christendom, probably even in his own, if his learned advisers favoured his views.

The board of conscience consisted of seven individuals, who took the circumstances of the case into consideration, and on the 23rd of January 1569 pronounced their opinion. They declared that as the Monomotapa and his predecessors had been guilty of killing and robbing their own innocent subjects as well as several Portuguese traders, that one of them had ordered the father Dom Gonçalo da Silveira, a peaceful missionary, to be murdered, that by them two Portuguese ambassadors from the captain of Sofala had been robbed and detained as prisoners, that they sheltered in their dominions many Moors, the enemies of the Christian faith and instigators of evil, and that apostolic bulls were in existence conceding to the king all the commerce of the country from Cape Nun to India upon condition of his causing the gospel to be preached there, it would be right and proper to demand in moderate terms that the African ruler should receive and protect Christian missionaries, expel the Moors, cease tyrannical conduct towards his subjects, carry on commerce in a friendly manner, and make sufficient compensation for all damage done and expenses incurred; and upon his failing to do so war might justly be made upon him. It would certainly be difficult to find better reasons for hostilities than those here given, if the true object had not been something very different.

The next step was the division of India into three governments. Complaints were unceasing that in places distant from Goa it was almost impossible to carry on business properly, owing to the length of time required to obtain orders and

instructions, and it was evident that war on an extensive scale could not be conducted successfully in Eastern Africa if the general in command should be in any way hampered. The whole sphere of Portuguese influence in the East was therefore separated into three sections: the first extending from Cape Correntes to Cape Guardafui, the second from Cape Guardafui to Pegu, and the third from Pegu to China. As head of the first and commander in chief of the expedition about to be sent out the king's choice fell upon Francisco Barreto, an officer of experience in war, who had been governor general of India from 1555 to 1558, and who was then in chief command of the royal galleys. The appointment was a popular one, for Barreto had the reputation of being not only brave and skilful, but the most generous cavalier of his day. He was instructed to enrol a thousand soldiers, and was supplied with a hundred thousand cruzados (47,616*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*) in ready money, with a promise of an equal sum in gold and a reinforcement of five hundred men every year until the conquest should be completed. All Lisbon was in a state of excitement when this became known, and so great was the enthusiasm with which the project was regarded that from every side cadets of the best families pressed forward and offered their services. The recruiting offices were so crowded that only the very best men were selected, and those who were rejected would have sufficed for another expedition.

Three ships were engaged to take the troops to Mozambique. One of these—the *Rainha*—was a famous Indiaman, and the largest in the king's service. In addition to the crew, six hundred soldiers, of whom more than half were of gentle blood and two hundred were court attendants, embarked with Barreto in this ship. In each of the others two hundred soldiers embarked. One was commanded by Vasco Fernandes Homem, the other by Lourenço Carvalho. The viceroy at Goa was instructed to forward supplies of provisions and military stores to Mozambique, and to procure horses, asses, and camels at Ormuz for the use of the expedition. A hundred negroes were sent out to take care of the animals

when they arrived. To accompany the expedition four fathers of the Society of Jesus were selected, one of whom—Francisco Monclaros by name—wrote an account of it which is still in existence.

On the 16th of April 1569 the expedition, that was supposed to have a brilliant career before it, sailed from Belem amidst the roar of artillery and a great sound of trumpets. Almost immediately the first trouble was encountered, in the form of a gale which caused so much damage to the ship commanded by Lourenço Carvalho that she was obliged to return to Lisbon, where she was condemned. The other two took seventy-seven days to reach the equator, and then separated, Vasco Fernandes Homem proceeding to Mozambique, where he arrived in August, and the captain general steering for the bay of All Saints on the coast of Brazil to procure water and refreshments. The *Rainha* dropped anchor in this bay on the 4th of August, and remained until the end of January 1570, waiting for the favourable monsoon. During this time sixty of the soldiers died, but as many others were obtained in their stead.

At the bay of All Saints Francisco Barreto received information of a destructive plague that had broken out in Lisbon, and that his wife, Dona Beatriz d'Ataide, had died of it only two days after his departure. Having sailed again, the Cape of Good Hope was passed in safety, but on the banks of Agulhas a storm was encountered which drove the ship so far back that she was thirty-six days in recovering her position. In consequence of this, Mozambique was not reached until the 16th of May 1570, where Vasco Fernandes Homem was found with his men all ill and having lost many by death, among them his own son Antonio Mascarenhas. None of the requisite supplies or animals had yet arrived from India. Pedro Barreto, a nephew of the commander in chief, had been captain of Sofala and Mozambique, but upon hearing of the new arrangement in a fit of jealousy had thrown up his appointment and embarked in a ship returning to Europe. This is the man whose shabby treatment of Luis

de Camões has blackened his name for ever in Portuguese history. He died on the passage to Lisbon. His affairs in Africa were wound up by his agent, from whom Vasco Fernandes Homem, who assumed the government, demanded the proceeds of his property, amounting to about thirty-three thousand pounds sterling. This money was transferred to Francisco Barreto upon his arrival, who made use of it in defraying some of the expenses of the expedition.

The town of Mozambique at this time contained about a hundred Portuguese residents and two hundred Indians and Kaffirs. The Mohamedan village on the island was in a ruinous condition. The construction of Fort São Sebastião was progressing, and some heavy artillery brought out in the *Rainha* was landed to be mounted on its walls.

Francisco Barreto appointed Lourenço Godinho captain of Mozambique provisionally, and in October sent Vasco Fernandes Homem with three hundred soldiers to the ports along the coast to the northward to obtain provisions and then take possession of the Comoro islands. A few weeks later he followed himself in pangayos with the remainder of his force who were in health, and overtook Homem at Kilwa, which was then a place of very little importance. From Kilwa he proceeded to Mafia, and after a stay there of two or three days, to Zanzibar. At this island some Kaffirs who were in insurrection were reduced to order. After this Barreto visited Mombasa, Melinde, Cambo, and Pate. At the place last named the inhabitants were more hostile to the Portuguese than at any other settlement on the coast, and on that account it was intended to destroy the town; but it was found almost deserted, and the few people left in it begged for mercy and were spared on paying five thousand seven hundred and fourteen pounds sterling, partly in gold and partly in cloth and provisions. They avenged themselves after the expedition sailed, however, by robbing and murdering several Portuguese traders. As many of the soldiers had died along the coast and others were very ill, Barreto here abandoned his design against the Comoro islands, and from

Pate returned to Mozambique with the tribute money and provisions he had obtained.

Upon his arrival at the island he found a small vessel under command of Manuel de Mesquita Perestrello, that had been sent from Portugal to his assistance. The *Rainha* was lying a wreck on the coast of the mainland, having been driven from her anchors in a hurricane, but her cargo had previously been taken on shore. Two ships which the viceroy Dom Luis d'Ataide had sent from India with munitions of war, stores of different kinds, horses, and other animals for the use of the expedition, had just made their appearance. With these, however, Barreto received information that a powerful hostile force was besieging Chaul, so he called a council of his officers and put the question to them whether it would not be more advantageous to the king's service to defer the African conquest for a time, and proceed to the relief of that place. The council was of opinion that they should first force the enemy to raise the siege of Chaul, and then return and take possession of the gold mines, so preparations for that purpose were at once commenced.

Before Barreto could sail for Chaul, Dom Antonio de Noronha, the newly appointed viceroy of India from Cape Guardafui to Pegu, arrived at Mozambique with a fleet of five ships having on board two hundred soldiers to reinforce the African expedition. His appearance put a different aspect upon affairs. He was very ill when he reached the island, but after a few days he recovered sufficiently to be present at a general council, which was attended by a large number of officers of high rank and more than twenty fathers of the Society of Jesus and the order of Saint Dominic, when it was unanimously resolved that the African expedition should at once be proceeded with. With one exception, the members of the council were of opinion that Sofala should be made the base of operations, the father Francisco Monclaros alone holding that the route should be up the Zambesi to a certain point, and then straight to the mountain where the paramount chief of the Kalanga tribe resided, in order to punish that

despot for the murder of the missionary Dom Gonçalo da Silveira.

Barreto accepted the decision of the majority of the council, and commenced to send his stores to Sofala in small vessels, but after a time his mind misgave him. He had been specially commanded by the king on all occasions of importance to follow the advice of Father Monclaros, who was in high favour at court. After another consultation with him, the captain general suddenly recalled the pangayos from Sofala, and in November 1571 left Mozambique for Sena with twenty-two vessels of different sizes conveying his army and stores. Two years and seven months had passed away since he sailed from Lisbon, many of the men who had embarked there in high hope of glory and wealth were no more, and most of those who remained alive were enfeebled by the long sojourn on that unhealthy coast. It is creditable to them that at last, when the time of action appeared to have arrived, they were still found eager to press forward.

On the way down the coast the flotilla put into several ports before reaching the Quilimane, where Barreto procured a number of luzios or large boats; but finding that mouth of the Zambesi not then navigable into the main stream, he proceeded to the Luabo. At Quilimane only two or three Portuguese were residing. The Bantu chief, whose name was Mongalo, had a distinct remembrance of Vasco da Gama's visit seventy-five years before.

Sixteen days were required to ascend the river from the bar of the Luabo to Sena. Sometimes the sails were set, at other times the vessels were towed by boats, and where the current was very strong warping was resorted to. Barreto resolved to make Sena his base of proceedings. Ten Portuguese traders were living there in wattled huts, but there was no fort or substantial building of any kind. The troops were landed, and were found to number over seven hundred arquebusiers, exclusive of officers, slaves, and camp attendants of every description. Their supply of provisions was ample. They had horses to draw the artillery and mount a respectable

company, a number of asses to carry skin water-bags, and some camels for heavy transport. As far as war material was concerned, the expedition was as well equipped as it could be. But this first campaign of Europeans against Bantu in Southern Africa was opened under exceptional difficulties, for the locality was the sickly Zambesi valley, and the time was the hottest of the year.

Agents were at once sent out to purchase oxen, and the work of building a fort was commenced without delay. Stone for the purpose was drawn to the site selected by cattle trained to the yoke, the first ever so employed in South Africa, which caused great astonishment to the Bantu spectators. The beginning of trouble was occasioned by thirst. The river, owing to heavy falls of rain along its upper course, was so muddy and dirty that its water could not be used without letting it settle, and the only vessels available for this purpose were a few calabashes. Then sickness broke out, and men, horses, and oxen began to die, owing, as the captain general supposed, to the impurities which they drank. Father Monclaros, however, was of a different opinion. He believed that the Mohamedans who resided at Sena were poisoning the grass to cause the animals to perish, and were even practising the same malevolence towards the men, when opportunities occurred, by putting some deadly substance secretly in the food. He urged Barreto to expel them, who declined to do so, and to ascertain whether purer water could not be obtained, caused a well to be dug. The excavation was made, and stone was being brought to build a wall round it, when one Manhoesa, a man of mixed Arab and Bantu blood, went to Barreto privately and told him that there was a plot to put poison in it.

The Mohamedan residents of the place were traders who purchased goods from the Portuguese and paid for them in gold and ivory. Some of them owned many slaves, whom they employed as carriers in their bartering expeditions and agents in pushing their traffic far into the interior. They were governed by their own sheik, and were quite inde-

pendent of other control. Most of them could speak the Portuguese language sufficiently well to be understood, and after the expedition arrived professed to entertain friendship for the members of it, though at heart it was impossible for the two races at that time to be really well disposed towards each other. Apart from the wide gulf which religion caused, the Christians had come to destroy the commerce with the Bantu by which these mongrel Arabs lived, how could there then be friendship between them?

Barreto believed Manhoesa's statement, and caused the well to be filled up. The horses were now dying off at an alarming rate,—just as would happen to-day, for in that locality they cannot long exist,—and upon the bodies being opened, the appearance of the lungs convinced the Portuguese that they had been poisoned. The grooms were arrested, and as they protested that they were innocent, the captain general commanded them to be put to the torture. Under this ordeal some of them declared that they had been bribed by a Moorish priest to kill the horses, and that he had supplied them with poison for the purpose.

Upon this evidence Barreto ordered his soldiers to attack the Mohamedans suddenly and put them to the sword. The country around was thereupon scoured to a considerable distance, and all the adult males were killed except seventeen, who were brought to the camp as prisoners. Their property of every kind was seized, most of which was divided among the soldiers as booty, though gold to the value of over 6700*l.* was reserved for the service of the king. The prisoners were tried, and were sentenced to death. They were exhorted to embrace Christianity, in order to save their souls, but all rejected the proposal except one, who was baptized with the name Lourenço, and was accompanied to the scaffold by a priest carrying a crucifix. This one was hanged, some were impaled, some were blown from the mouths of mortars, and the others were put to death in various ways with exquisite torture. Of the whole adult male Mohamedan population of Sena and its neighbourhood only Manhoesa was left alive.

Such dreadful barbarity inflicted upon people innocent of the crime with which they were charged was regarded by Father Monclaros as a simple act of justice, and he recorded the horrible event without the slightest recognition of the infamy attached to it.

Shortly after he reached Sena Barreto sent Miguel Bernardes, an old resident in the country, to the Monomotapa; but he was drowned on the way by the overturning of his canoe in the river. Another was then despatched on the same errand. A messenger went in advance to ascertain whether he would be received in a manner becoming the representative of the king of Portugal, because in that capacity he would not be at liberty to lay aside his arms, to prostrate himself upon the ground, and to kneel when addressing the chief, as was the ordinary custom when natives or strangers presented themselves. Some Mohamedans were at the great place when the messenger arrived, and they tried to induce the Monomotapa not to see the envoy except in the usual manner. They informed him that the Portuguese were powerful sorcerers, who, if permitted to have their own way, might bewitch and even kill him by their glances and their words. The chief was alarmed by their statements and therefore hesitated for some days, but in the end he promised that the envoy might present himself in the Portuguese manner, and would be received with friendship.

Barreto's agent then proceeded to the Monomotapa's kraal. He had several attendants with him, and before him went servants carrying a chair and a carpet. The carpet was spread on the ground in front of the place where the Monomotapa was reclining with his councillors and great men half surrounding him, the chair was placed upon it, and the Portuguese official, richly dressed and armed, took his seat in it, his attendants, also armed, standing on each side and at his back. The European subordinate and the greatest of all the South African chiefs were there in conference, and the European, by virtue of his blood, assumed and was conceded the higher position of the two.

After some complimentary remarks from each, the envoy, through his interpreter, introduced the subject of his mission, which he said was to obtain the grant of a right of way to the gold mines of Manika and Butua, and to form an alliance against the chief Mongasi—(variously written by the Portuguese Omigos, Mongas, and Monge),—the hereditary enemy of the Makalanga. The real object of Barreto's expedition, the seizure of the gold mines in the Kalanga country itself, was kept concealed. The Monomotapa, as a matter of course, was charmed with the proposal of assistance against his enemy. The tribe of which Mongasi was the head occupied the right bank of the Zambesi at and above the Lupata gorge, and during several preceding years had committed great ravages upon its neighbours. Its territory was small compared with that over which the Kalanga clans were spread, but its men were brave and fond of war, and to the Portuguese it was not certain which of the two was really the more powerful, Mongasi or the Monomotapa himself. The condition of things indeed was somewhat similar to that in the same country three centuries later, except that Mongasi and his fighting men were in power far below Lobengula and the Matabele bands. The chief had given the Portuguese cause for enmity by robbing and killing several traders, and on one occasion sending a party to Tete who, finding no white men there at the time, murdered about seventy of their female slaves and children.

The Monomotapa was so pleased that he readily agreed to everything that the envoy proposed. He offered to send a great army to assist against Mongasi, and he said that a way through his territory to the mines beyond would be open to the Portuguese at all times. This was very satisfactory from Barreto's point of view, though he did not avail himself of the offer of assistance, as he wished to avoid any complications that might arise from it.

After a detention of seven months at Sena, the return of the envoy enabled the captain general to proceed towards his destination. The fort which he had nearly completed,

named São Marçal, gave the Portuguese at least one strong position on the great river, though the country about it was not subdued, and the Bantu were left in absolute independence there. He had lost by fever at that unhealthy place a great many of those who had accompanied him from Portugal with such high hope, among them his own son Ruy Nunes Barreto, and of the men who were left some were barely able to walk. At the end of July 1572 he set out. A flotilla of boats containing provisions and stores of all kinds ascended the river, and along the bank marched the army accompanied by twenty-five waggons drawn by oxen, and the camels, asses, and a few horses that had recently arrived from India. The troops, about six hundred and fifty in number, including eighty Indians and mixed breeds, were divided into five companies, commanded respectively by Barreto himself, Antonio de Mello, Thomé de Sousa, Jeronymo d'Aguiar, and Jeronymo d'Andrada. Vasco Fernandes Homem, who had the rank of colonel, filled an office corresponding to that of quarter master general. Over two thousand slaves and camp attendants were with the army.

A whole month was occupied in marching from Sena to the confluence of the Mazoe and the Zambesi above the Lupata gorge. Frequently a soldier became too ill to walk, and he was then placed on a waggon until nightfall, when the camp was pitched on the margin of the river and he was transferred to one of the boats. The expedition was now to ascend the Mazoe to Mongasi's great place, so near its mouth Barreto formed a camp on a small island, and left there his sick with the boats and all the superfluous baggage and stores, for there was no possibility of proceeding with a heavily encumbered column. An officer named Ruy de Mello, who had been wounded by a buffalo, was placed in charge of this camp. On the northern, or Bororo side of the Zambesi, there was a tribe of considerable strength living under a chief named Tshombe, who was an enemy of Mongasi and therefore as soon as he ascertained the object of the expedition professed to be a friend of the Portuguese. He supplied

two hundred men to assist in carrying the baggage and to act as guides.

With his force now reduced to five hundred and sixty arquebusiers, twenty-three horsemen, and a few gunners with five or six pieces of artillery, Barreto turned away almost due south from the Zambesi. In this direction the column marched ten days, the men and animals suffering greatly at times from want of water. How the slaves and camp attendants fared is not mentioned by either De Couto or Father Monclaros, but the soldiers lived chiefly on scanty rations of beef, which they grilled on embers or by holding it on rods before a fire, though often they were so exhausted with the heat and fatigue that they were unable to eat anything at all. Their spirits revived, however, when on the eleventh day they came in sight of Mongasi's army, which was so large that the hillsides and valleys looked black with men.

Barreto immediately arranged his soldiers in a strong position resting on a hill, and awaited an attack, but none was made that day. All night the troops were under arms, getting what sleep they could without moving from their places, but that was little, for the natives at no great distance were shouting continuously and making a great noise with their war-drums. At dawn the sergeant-major, Pedro de Castro, was sent out with eighty picked men to try and draw the enemy on. This manœuvre succeeded. The natives rushed forward in a dense mass, led by an old female witchfinder with a calabash full of charms, which she threw into the air in the belief that they would cause the Portuguese to become blind and palsied. So implicitly did the warriors of Mongasi rely upon these charms, that they carried riems to bind the Europeans who should not be killed. Barreto ordered one of his best shots to try to pick the old sorceress off, and she fell dead under his fire. The natives, who believed that she was immortal, were checked for an instant, but presently brandishing their weapons with great shouts, they came charging on.

Then, with a cry of São Thiago from the Portuguese, a storm of balls from cannons and arquebuses and unwieldy firelocks was poured into the dense mass, which was shattered and broken. Barreto now in his turn charged, when the enemy took to flight, but in the pursuit several Portuguese were wounded with arrows. Fearing that his men might get scattered, the general caused the recall to be sounded almost at once, so that within a few minutes from its commencement the action was over.

The horsemen were then sent out to inspect the country in front. They returned presently with intelligence that there was a large kraal close by, belonging to Kapote, one of Mongasi's sub-chiefs, so the general resolved to set it on fire as soon as the men were a little rested and had broken their fast. About ten o'clock the expedition reached the kraal, which was nearly surrounded by patches of forest, and it was burned, but immediately afterwards the natives were seen approaching. There was just time to form a kind of breast-work at the sides of the field guns with stakes and bushes when Mongasi's army, arranged in the form of a crescent with its horns extended to surround the position, was upon the invading band. It was received as before with a heavy fire, which was kept back until the leading rank was within a few feet, and which struck down the files far towards the rear. The smoke which rolled over the Europeans and hid them from sight was regarded by the Bantu with superstitious fear, it seemed to them as if their opponents were under supernatural protection, and so they fled once more. They were followed some distance, and a great many were killed, among whom was the chief Kapote, but the Portuguese also suffered severely in the pursuit, for when Barreto's force came together again it was found that more than sixty men were wounded, some indeed only slightly but not a few mortally, and two were dead. Of the enemy it was believed that over six thousand had perished since dawn that morning, though very probably this estimate was much in excess of the actual number.

The progress of the expedition was now delayed by the necessity of establishing a hospital. Fortunately the site of the captured kraal was a good one, and water was plentiful close by. But at daylight on the sixth day after their arrival the natives attacked them again. On this occasion the Europeans were protected with palisades, which the Bantu were unable to pass, though they continued their efforts to force an entrance until an hour after noon. Their losses under these circumstances must have been very heavy, and they were so disheartened that they accepted their defeat as decisive and sent a messenger to beg for peace.

Barreto's position at this time was one of great difficulty. He was encumbered with sick and wounded men, the objective point of his expedition was far away, his supply of ammunition was small, and his slaughter cattle were reduced to a very limited number. Yet he spoke to Mongasi's messenger in a haughty tone, and replied that he would think over the matter: the chief might send again after a couple of days, and he would then decide. A present of fifty head of cattle and as many sheep, a little gold, and a couple of tusks of ivory, was sent to him, and he gave in return some iron hoes, but no terms of peace were arranged. The animals were of the greatest service, so small was his stock of food.

In less than a week from this time a council of war was held, when there was but one opinion, that the only hope of safety was in retreating without delay. The expedition therefore turned back towards the Zambesi, and so great were the sufferings of the men for want of food on the way that they searched for roots and wild plants to keep them alive. At length, at the end of September, the bank of the river was reached, and a canoe was obtained, with which a letter was sent to Ruy de Mello, who was in command of the camp on the island. That officer immediately despatched six boat loads of millet and other provisions, and thus the exhausted soldiers and camp attendants were saved. They had not penetrated the country farther than forty-five miles in a straight line from the river.

There were more than two hundred men either wounded or too ill to be of any service, and the losses by death had been large, so Barreto resolved to return to Sena, where a reinforcement of eighty soldiers who had recently arrived was awaiting him. The sick were sent down the river in boats after the remainder of the expedition had crossed to the Bororo side with the animals and baggage, and the waggons, now useless, had been burned. On the march provisions were obtained from the natives, who were subjects of Tshombe, and two kraals hostile to that chief were destroyed.

A few days after crossing the river Barreto received information that his presence was urgently needed at Mozambique. When he sailed from that island he left there as captain a man eighty years of age, named Antonio Pereira Brandão, and assigned to Lourenço Godinho the office of factor. Brandão was under the deepest obligation to him. In the Maluccas he had committed crimes for which he was tried and condemned to confiscation of all his property and banishment to Africa for life. He threw himself upon the compassion of Barreto, who obtained permission from the king to take him with the expedition, and made him captain of Mozambique purposely that he might acquire some property to bestow upon his daughter. In return he acted with such treachery towards his benefactor that he planned the detention of supplies forwarded from Goa, in order to ruin him.

Upon learning this Barreto left Vasco Fernandes Homem in command of the retreating force, and proceeded down the river in a luzio. At Sena he found an embassy from the Monomotapa, who brought a message expressing good will and desiring friendship with the king of Portugal and commerce with the white people. The captain general mentioned three conditions as requisite to a compact between them: first that the Mohamedans should be expelled from the country, secondly that Christian missionaries should be received, and thirdly that a number of gold mines should be ceded. He added that if these conditions were agreed to, upon his return from Mozambique he would deal with other

obstacles in the way of friendly commerce as he had dealt with Mongasi. The principal man in the embassy replied that the conditions were acceptable, and it was then arranged that some Portuguese should return with the party to learn from the Monomotapa himself whether he would agree to them.

For this purpose Barreto appointed three gentlemen named Francisco de Magalhães, Francisco Rafaxo, and Gaspar Borges, whom he sent in company with the Kalanga embassy on its return home with a valuable present of cloth and other articles to the Monomotapa. It was afterwards learned that Francisco de Magalhães died on the journey, and that the two others were very well received. The Monomotapa, as was natural under the circumstances, was profuse in friendly sentiments. He promised to expel the Mohamedans from his country, to receive Christian missionaries with friendship, and to give some gold mines to the Portuguese to work; but probably he had no intention of literally carrying out the first and the last of these concessions. He sent back a present of gold, though it was of trifling value compared with what he had received.

As soon as the remnant of the army reached Sena the captain general instructed Vasco Fernandes Homem to complete the construction of Fort São Marçal and the necessary buildings connected with it, and then with Father Monclaros and a few attendants he proceeded to the mouth of the Luabo and embarked in a pangayo for Mozambique. Shortly after his arrival at that island a ship arrived from India with stores for the expedition, and in her came João da Silva, a natural son of Barreto, who delivered to his father a number of defamatory letters which Antonio Pereira Brandão had written concerning him to the king, and which Dom Jorge de Menezes, his relative by marriage, had intercepted. With this new proof of Brandão's treachery in his possession the captain general dismissed him from office, but was too generous to punish him further. Lourenço Godinho was appointed captain of Mozambique in his stead.

With his son, all the recruits he could obtain, a good supply of ammunition and other material of war, and a large quantity of calico with which to purchase provisions and meet other expenses, on the 3rd of March 1573 Francisco Barreto sailed again from Mozambique with a fleet of pangayos, intending to invade Manika from Sena. But misfortune still pursued him. Contrary winds were encountered, which compelled him to put into several ports, and two of the pangayos, laden with ammunition and provisions, were lost. At Quilimane intelligence was received of fearful mortality among the troops at Sena. The captains Jeronymo d'Aguiar and Antonio de Mello with all the inferior officers of the several companies and most of the soldiers had died, and Vasco Fernandes Homem and the Jesuit fathers were very ill. All hope of being able to invade Manika was thus lost, but Barreto felt that it would be disgraceful to abandon his people in such a time of distress, and so he pressed forward. On the 1st of May he left the mouth of the river, and on the 15th arrived at Sena.

At the landing place about fifty soldiers, all that were able to stand, were waiting to receive him with banners displayed, but there was not an officer with them until Vasco Fernandes Homem was brought down in a state of great debility. The captain general and the priest passed on to the hospital, where the sick tried to welcome them, but only one man was able to discharge an arquebus. The sole remaining physician was dying. It was a pitiful sight, this terrible end of an expedition entered upon with such enthusiasm and such unbounded hope of success.

Some of the sick improved in health owing to the medical comforts Barreto had brought with him, but the whole of the recruits just arrived were struck down almost at once. The captain general, eight days after he reached Sena, had an angry altercation with Father Monclaros, in which the priest reproached him for not having abandoned the enterprise long before and told him that God would bring him to account for all the lives lost. Immediately after this the unfortunate

commander took to his bed, and after a brief period of exhaustion died in great distress of mind, though apparently free of fever. In India and in his native country he had been regarded as a man of high ability, but South Africa destroyed his reputation, like that of many others since. He was buried in the newly erected church within the fort São Marçal, but his remains and those of his son Ruy Nunes Barreto were subsequently removed to Portugal, where by order of the king a pompous state funeral was accorded to them. His natural son, João da Silva, was taken by his servants from Sena to Mozambique, prostrate with illness, and died there. He had been wealthy, but his father had borrowed all he possessed for the use of the army, as he had done from many others, so that Francisco Barreto's executors found that he not only left no property, but that he was responsible for a hundred and twenty thousand cruzados (57,140*l.*) thus raised.

Upon opening the first of the sealed orders of succession which had been given by the king to the late captain general, the name of Pedro Barreto was found; but he had long been dead. The second order of succession was then opened, which contained the name of Vasco Fernandes Homem, who thereupon assumed the title of governor and captain general of the African coast from Cape Guardafui to Cape Correntes. Acting upon the advice of Father Monclaros, the new governor retired to Mozambique as speedily as possible, taking with him all the material of war and men except sufficient for a small garrison that he left in Fort São Marçal at Sena.

Shortly after he reached the island, an officer named Francisco Pinto Pimentel, who was his cousin, arrived there from India on his way home. This officer expressed the utmost astonishment at his having abandoned an enterprise which the king had resolved should be carried out, and for which reinforcements were even then being sent from Portugal. In his opinion it was gross dereliction of duty, and he reminded his relative that a high official had not long before

lost his head for an act which might be regarded as similar. The advice of Father Monclaros, he said, would not serve as an excuse, because a priest could not be supposed to be a guide in military matters. The father had already embarked in a ship returning to Lisbon, so Pimentel's reasoning was not counteracted by his influence.

The captain general therefore resolved to resume the effort to get possession of the gold mines, and to make his base of operations the port that had been recommended by the council of officers and clergy in 1571. As many recruits as could be obtained from ships that called were added to the remnant of Barreto's force and the fresh soldiers just arrived from Europe, a flotilla of coasting vessels was collected, provisions were procured, and an army of some strength, well provided with munitions of war, was conveyed to Sofala. The date of its arrival cannot be given, as no Portuguese chronicler or historian mentions it, and the original manuscript of Father Monclaros terminates with the death of Francisco Barreto. The Kiteve and Tshikanga tribes were found to be at variance with each other, a circumstance that was favourable to the captain general's views. As soon as his soldiers were on shore, who mustered five hundred in number, exclusive of attendants and camp followers, he sent presents to the Kiteve chief, and requested a free passage to the Tshikanga territory, but met with a refusal. The Bantu rulers always objected to intercourse between white people and the tribes beyond their own, because they feared to lose their toll on the commerce which passed through their territories, and they were also apprehensive of strangers forming an alliance with their enemies.

Homem made no scruple in marching forward without the chief's permission, and when the Kiteves attempted to oppose him with arms, a discharge of his artillery and arquebuses immediately scattered them. They had not the mettle of the gallant warriors of Mongasi. After several defeats the whole tribe fled into a rugged tract of country, taking their cattle with them, and leaving no grain that the invaders could find.

Homem marched on to their zimbabwe, which consisted of thatched huts, to which he set fire. Two days later he reached Tshikanga's territory. There he met men bringing a present from the chief, who was delighted at the overthrow of his enemy, and who gave him a warm welcome.

The Portuguese force went on to the great place, where a camp was formed, the utmost good feeling being shown on both sides. After a short rest Homem and some of his principal men visited the mines, but were greatly disappointed. They had expected to find the precious metal in such abundance that they could take away loads of it, instead of which a number of naked blacks carrying baskets of earth from a deep cavity were seen, with some others washing the earth in wooden troughs and after long and patient toil extracting a few grains of gold. They at once concluded that it could be of no advantage for them to hold the country. An agreement was therefore made with the Tshikanga chief that he should do everything in his power to facilitate commerce with his people, and for that purpose should allow Portuguese traders or their agents to enter his country at any time, in return for which the captain of the fort of Sofala was to make him a yearly present of two hundred rolls of cotton cloth.

The expedition went no farther in the Manika country, the point reached being the place now known as Masikesi, or somewhere near it. As soon as his people were refreshed, Homem set out again for the coast, without attempting to penetrate to the territory of the Monomotapa. On the way messengers from the Kiteve chief met him, and begged for peace, so an agreement was made with them similar in terms to the one concluded with the owner of Manika.

It was at this time believed that silver was plentiful somewhere on the southern bank of the Zambesi above Tete,—the exact locality was uncertain,—and as the native tribes in that direction were too weak to offer much resistance, the captain general resolved to go in search of it and endeavour to retrieve the pecuniary losses he and his predecessor had

sustained. Accordingly he proceeded by sea from Sofala to the Zambesi, and having ascended that river to Sena he disembarked and marched upward along it. At first the natives were friendly and he had no difficulty in adding to his supply of provisions, but after a time he found that as he advanced they abandoned their kraals and fled, so he built a fort of wood and earth, in which he stationed a garrison of two hundred men under Antonio Cardoso d'Almeida, and with the remainder of the force he returned to Mozambique.

The natives now went back to their kraals, but kept away from the fort. After a time provisions began to fail, so D'Almeida sent out a raiding party that secured a quantity of millet and a few cattle. Some of the natives after this asked for peace, and terms were agreed upon, but when a band of soldiers left the fort to explore the country, it was attacked, and only a few men got back again. The place was then surrounded, and the siege was maintained until the provisions were exhausted, when the Portuguese tried to cut their way out, but were all killed.

Thus ended the expeditions under Francisco Barreto and Vasco Fernandes Homem, undertaken to get possession of the mineral wealth of South-Eastern Africa. Nothing more disastrous had happened to the Portuguese since their first appearance in Indian waters. The original army and all the reinforcements sent from Lisbon had perished, excepting a few score of worn out and fever stricken men who reached Mozambique in the last stage of despondency. To compensate for the large expenditure that had been incurred, there was nothing more than the fort São Marçal at Sena and the few buildings within it. The extent of the disaster was realised by the king, and after a short and uneventful term of office by Dom Fernando de Monroy, who succeeded Vasco Fernandes Homem, an end was put to the captain generalship of Eastern Africa, which thereupon reverted to its former position as a dependency of the viceroyalty of India.

CHAPTER XI.

EVENTS TO THE CLOSE OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

ON the 4th of August 1578 the great tragedy took place of the death of King Sebastião in battle with the Moors of Northern Africa, and the total destruction of the army which he commanded in person, the entire force of Portugal. At once the little kingdom lost the proud position she had occupied among the nations of Europe, and thereafter was regarded as of trifling importance. The country had been drained of men, and was completely exhausted. It must be remembered that she never was in as favourable a condition for conducting enterprises requiring large numbers of sailors and soldiers as the Netherlands were at a later date. She had no great reservoir of thews and muscles to draw from as Holland had in the German states. Spain was behind her, as the German states were behind the Netherlands, but Spain found employment for all her sons in Mexico and Peru. Portugal had to depend upon her own people. She was colonising Brazil and Madeira too, and occupying forts and factories on the western coast of Africa as well as on the shores of the eastern seas. Of the hosts of men—the very best of her blood—that went to India and Africa, few ever returned. They perished of fevers or other diseases, or they lost their lives in wars and shipwrecks, or they made homes for themselves far from their native land.

To procure labourers to till the soil of her southern provinces slaves were introduced from Africa. In 1441 Antão Gonçalves and Nuno Tristão brought the first home with them, and then the doom of the kingdom was sealed. No

other Europeans have ever treated negroes so mildly as the Portuguese, or been so ready to mix with them on equal terms. But even in Estremadura, Alemtejo, and the Algarves it was impossible for the European without losing self respect to labour side by side with the African, and so all of the most enterprising of the peasant class moved away. The slaves, on embracing Christianity, had various privileges conferred upon them, and their blood became mixed with that of the least energetic of the peasantry, until a new and degenerate stock, frivolous, inconstant, incapable of improvement, was formed. In the northern provinces Entre Douro e Minho and Tras os Montes a pure European race remained, fit not only to conquer, but to hold dominion in distant lands, though too small in proportion to the entire population of the country to control its destinies. There to the present day are to be met men capable of doing anything that other Europeans can do, but to find the true descendants of the Portuguese heroes of the sixteenth century, one must not look among the lower classes of the southern and larger part of the country now.

Further, corruption of the grossest kind was prevalent in the administration everywhere. The great offices, including the captaincies of the factories and forts in the distant dependencies, were purchased from the favourites of the king, though they were said to be granted on account of meritorious services. Reversions were secured in advance, often several in succession, and there were even instances of individuals acquiring the reversion of captaincies for unnamed persons. Such offices were held for three years, and the men who obtained them did their utmost to make fortunes within that period. They were like the Monomotapa of the Kalanga tribe, no one could approach them to ask a favour or to conduct business without a bribe in his hand, every commercial transaction paid them a toll. They had not yet sunk in the deep sloth that characterised them at a later date, but they lived in a style of luxury undreamed of in earlier days.

The exact manner in which Dom Sebastião met his death was never known. Many of the common people refused to believe that he had been slain: he was hidden away, they asserted, and in God's good time would return and restore the kingdom to its former glory. Many generations passed away before this strange conviction ceased to be held, and all the time, in expectation of some great supernatural occurrence in their favour, the nation allowed matters to take their course without making a supreme effort to rectify them. The cardinal Dom Henrique, an imbecile old man, ascended the throne, but he died on the 31st of January 1580, and with him the famous dynasty of Avis, that had ruled Portugal so long and so gloriously, became extinct in the direct male line.

The duchess of Bragança as the nearest heir in blood might have succeeded, her title being unquestionably clear, but the spirit of the nation was gone, and the duke, her husband, did not choose to maintain her right against Philippe II of Spain, who based his pretensions to the Portuguese throne on his being descended on his mother's side from a younger branch of the late royal family. Dom Antonio, prior of Crato, an illegitimate son of the duke of Beja, second son of Manuel the Fortunate, however, seized the vacant crown, but in April 1581, as the whole people did not rally round him, was easily expelled by a Spanish army commanded by the duke of Alva. Philippe II then added Portugal to his dominions, nominally as an independent kingdom with all its governmental machinery intact as before, really as a subordinate country, whose remaining resources, such as they were, he drew upon for his wars in the Netherlands. To outward appearance the little state might seem to occupy a more impregnable position after such a close union with her powerful neighbour, but it was not so in reality. The enemies of Spain now became her enemies also, her factories and fleets were exposed to attack, and she received no assistance in defending them. The period of her greatness had for ever passed away.

The establishment of missions among the Bantu by the Dominicans was the most important occurrence in South-Eastern Africa at this period. In 1577 Dom Luis d'Ataide, when on his way to Goa to assume duty as viceroy, found at Mozambique two friars of this order, named Jeronymo de Couto and Pedro Usus Maris, who had come from India and were preparing to proceed to Madagascar to labour among the natives of that island. The viceroy induced them to remain where they were, and provided them with means to build a convent, in which six or seven of the brethren afterwards usually resided. This was the centre from which their missions were gradually extended in Eastern Africa. South of the Zambesi, Sofala, Sena, and Tete were occupied within the next few years.

The missionaries found the Europeans and mixed breeds at these places without the ministrations of chaplains, and sadly ignorant in matters spiritual. In the church within the fortress at Sena, for instance, the friars were shocked to see a picture of the Roman matron Lucretia, which had been suspended over a shrine in the belief that it was a portrait of Saint Catherine, and they observed with much surprise that no one made any distinction between fast and feast days.

They turned their attention therefore first to the nominal Christians, and succeeded in effecting some improvement in the condition of that class of the inhabitants, most of whom, however, continued to live in a way that ministers of religion could not approve of. They next applied themselves to the conversion of the Bantu, but did not meet with the success which they hoped for, though they baptized a good many individuals. It was hardly possible for them to make converts except among those who lived about the forts as dependents of the white people, and who were certainly not the best specimens of their race. The condition of the tribes was then such that anything like improvement was well nigh impossible. Wars and raids were constant, for an individual to abandon the faith and customs of his forefathers was regarded as

treason to his chief, and sensuality had attractions too strong to be set aside. Away from the forts the missionaries were compelled to endure hardships and privations of every kind, hunger, thirst, exposure to heat, fatigue, and fever; but the initial part of their duty, as they understood it, was to suffer without complaint.

In 1585 Dom João Gayo Ribeiro, bishop of Malacca, wrote to the cardinal archduke Albert of Austria, who then governed Portugal for the king, requesting him to obtain a reinforcement of missionaries for the islands of Solor and Timur, where Christianity was believed to be making rapid progress. He addressed a similar letter to the provincial of the Dominicans, and this, when made public, created such enthusiasm that a considerable number of friars at once volunteered for service in India. Among them was one named João dos Santos, to whom we are indebted for a minute and excellent account of South-Eastern Africa and its people. Dos Santos sailed from Lisbon with thirteen others of the same order on the 13th of April 1586, and on the 13th of August of that year reached Mozambique, where he received instructions from his superior to proceed to Sofala to assist the friar João Madeira, who was stationed there. Accordingly he set out in the first pangayo that sailed, and after touching at the islands of Angosha and the rivers Quilimane, Old Cuama, and Luabo on the way, reached his destination on the 5th of December. Two others of the party, the friars Jeronymo Lopes and João Frausto, went to Sena and Tete, where they remained three years and a half. When Dos Santos took up his abode at Sofala Garcia de Mello was captain of the station, subject to the control of the captain of Mozambique.

The fort built by Pedro d'Anaya had before this time been reconstructed of stone, and nothing of the original walls remained, but the tower erected by Manuel Fernandes was still standing. The form of the first structure—that of a square—was preserved, and a circular bastion had been added at each of the corners. The buildings within the walls were a church, warehouses to contain goods and stores, offices, and

residences for all the officials and people engaged in trade. There was also a large cistern in which rain was collected, as the water obtained in wells was not considered good. With the exception of a bombardier, a master gunner, and six assistants, the fort was without other garrison than the European residents of the place and their servants.

Close by was a village containing six hundred inhabitants professing Christianity. These were mixed breeds and negro slaves or others employed by the Portuguese, who in case of necessity would have been called upon to assist in defending the station. In this village there was a chapel, and while Dos Santos resided there a second place of devotion was built in it, as well as another some distance outside. The friar himself went with a party of men to an island in the Pungwe river to cut the timber needed in their construction and to repair and strengthen the church within the fort. The dwelling houses in the village were tiny structures of wattles and mud covered with thatch, not much larger or better than the huts of Bantu.

Farther away was a hamlet occupied by about a hundred Mohamedans, very poor and humble, the descendants of those who had acknowledged Isuf as their lord. There was still one among them termed a sheik, but he was without any real authority. So entirely dependent were these Mohamedans upon the Portuguese, and so subject to control, that they were obliged to pay tithes of their garden produce to the Dominican fathers, just as the residents in the neighbouring Christian village. A few individuals of their creed were scattered about the country, but all were in the same abject condition as those at Sofala.

The gardens cultivated by the inhabitants produced a variety of vegetables, such as yams, sweet potatoes, cabbages, melons, cucumbers, beans, and onions, in addition to millet, rice, sugar canes, and sesame, the last of which was grown to express the oil. Sugar was not made, but the juicy pith of the cane was esteemed as an article of diet. Fruit too was plentiful. The most common kinds were pomegranates,

oranges, limes, pineapples, bananas—usually called Indian figs,—and cocoa nuts. There were even groves of lime trees that had been allowed to become wild, the fruit of which any one who chose could gather. The principal flesh consumed by the Europeans was that of barnyard poultry, as in some parts of South-Eastern Africa at the present day, although horned cattle, goats, and pigs were plentiful. Venison of various kinds was abundant, and fish of good quality was always obtainable. Everything here enumerated could be had at trifling cost in barter for beads and squares of calico, which were used instead of coin, so that the cost of living in a simple manner was very small; but wines and imported provisions were exceedingly dear. The matical of gold was the common standard of value in commercial transactions between Europeans.

Four leagues above the fort there was in the river an island named Maroupé, about eight leagues in length by a league and a half in breadth. The greater part of this island had been given by the Kiteve to a Portuguese named Rodrigo Lobo, whom he regarded as his particular friend. But it was in no way a dependency of the European establishment at the mouth of the stream, for Lobo, though he still maintained intercourse with his countrymen, ruled there as a vassal of the Bantu overlord, just as a Kalanga sub-chief would have done. He lived in a more luxurious style than any white man at Sofala, had a harem of native women, and was attended upon by numerous slaves. His descendants are to be found in the country at the present day, and still call themselves Portuguese, though they are not distinguishable from Bantu in features or colour.

Sofala was never visited now by a ship direct from Portugal or India, its imports coming from Mozambique and its exports going to that island. The coasting trade was carried on with pangayos and luzios manned by black men who claimed to be Mohamedans, but really knew and cared very little about religion, though they were excessively superstitious and paid much attention to forms. The master, a mate, and a super-

cargo were commonly the only Europeans on board, and it sometimes happened that even these were mixed breeds.

Every year the Kiteve sent to the fort at Sofala for the cloth that was due to him under the agreement made by Vasco Fernandes Homem. It consisted of two hundred rolls, not mere squares, for each piece was worth more than a cruzado. It was necessary also, in order to maintain friendship with the powerful chief, to make presents of beads and calico of some value to his messengers, as they were selected by him with that expectation. This made commerce within his territory free, but any one passing through it to that of his neighbour the Tshikanga, in order to trade there, was obliged to pay him one piece of cloth out of every twenty. There was almost constant war between the four independent Kalanga chiefs, the Monomotapa, Tshikanga, Kiteve, and Sedanda, which of course had a disturbing effect upon commerce.

Sena was at this time really a place of greater importance than Sofala, though it did not rank so high as a governmental station. The salaries paid to its officials amounted to little more than £500 a year, while those paid at Sofala exceeded £1100. This, however, gives nothing upon which to form an opinion of the value of an office at either place, as incomes were regarded as derivable from perquisites, not from pay. A few years later it was ascertained that one individual, whose salary during his term of office amounted to £850, had realised a fortune of not less than £57,000,—an enormous sum for that period. This was of course a very exceptional case, but probably there were few who did not in some way receive their nominal salaries many times over.

Sena was the emporium of the trade of the Zambesi basin. Goods were brought here from Mozambique and stored in the warehouse within the fort until they were sent up the river to Tete in luzios, or up the Shire to the head waters of navigation, thence to be conveyed by carriers in different directions, or to the territory of the Tshikanga to be bartered for gold. The fort was not yet fully completed, but several

pieces of artillery were mounted on its walls. It contained a church, the factory with its storehouses, the residences of the captain and other officials, and the public offices. No soldiers were maintained here, the resident Portuguese and their dependents being regarded as sufficiently strong to defend the place if it should be attacked. The officials were appointed by the captain of Mozambique. In the village just outside the fort there were about fifty Portuguese residents and over seven hundred and fifty Indians, mixed breeds, and blacks. At this time slaves were not exported from the Zambezi, but captives were purchased from tribes that were at war, and were kept for service at all the stations. The blacks residing at Sena were of this class.

Every three years an embassy from the Monomotapa visited Sena to receive calico and beads of the value of three thousand cruzados, which each captain of Mozambique on assuming office was obliged to pay for the privilege of trading in the great chief's territory during the term of his government. The embassy was conducted with much state, having at its head men of rank who acted in the capacities so well known to those who have dealings with Bantu, as eyes, ears, and mouth of the chief. A Portuguese returned with it, to deliver the calico and beads formally, so that everything might be carried out in a manner satisfactory to both parties. The Monomotapa had a very simple way of enforcing this payment. If it was not made when due he ordered an *empata*, that is a seizure and confiscation of everything belonging to Portuguese in his country, and stopped all commerce. The goods so seized were never restored, though trade was resumed when merchandise to the full value of three thousand cruzados was forwarded to him. This system prevented payment by promises or running up accounts, which might otherwise have come into practice.

Up at the terminus of the river navigation by the Portuguese, one hundred and eighty miles from Sena, on the Botonga or southern bank of the stream, on ground five hundred feet above the level of the sea, stood Tete, the base

of the trade with the interior. It contained a fort built of stone, with seven or eight pieces of artillery on its walls, which enclosed a chapel, dedicated to São Thiago, warehouses, offices, and other buildings. In the village adjoining it resided about forty Portuguese and some five hundred and fifty Indians, half breeds, and blacks professing Christianity, of the same class as those at Sofala and Sena. There was no garrison of soldiers, the fort being intended for the resident Europeans and their dependents to retire into in case of being attacked. The captain or head of the establishment was appointed by the captain of Mozambique and was subject to his authority.

Within a circuit of three or four leagues from Tete there were eleven kraals of Bantu, that could muster among them more than two thousand men capable of bearing arms. They had been conquered by the Monomotapa some time before, and by him presented to the captain of Tete, who acted as their supreme ruler. So perfectly subject were they to him that they brought all cases of importance to him to be tried, and he appointed their headmen and could call out their warriors for service whenever he chose. They were the only Bantu south of the Zambesi, except the slaves and servants of the Europeans at the different stations, who were under Portuguese authority.

From Tete goods were conveyed on the backs of native carriers who travelled in caravans to three stations in the Kalanga territory, named Masapa, Luanze, and Bukoto, at each of which a Portuguese who had charge of the local barter resided with some assistants. The most important of these stations, or places of fairs as they were called, was Masapa, on the river Manzovo—now Mazoe,—about one hundred and fifty miles by footpath from Tete, and near the mountain Fura. The principal Portuguese resident at Masapa, though selected for the post by the European inhabitants of the country conjointly with the Kalanga ruler, held the office of chief under the Monomotapa, by whom he was vested with power, even of death, over the Bantu

residents at the station. No white man or native trader acting for one could pass Masapa without permission from the Portuguese chief or the Monomotapa himself, and the chief acted as agent for the Monomotapa in receiving and forwarding to him one-twentieth of all the goods brought into that part of the country to be bartered for gold and ivory. This appointment he held for life. So far he was simply a Kaffir chief, and his domestic establishment was that of one. But he was also a Portuguese official. He held a commission from the viceroy of India giving him considerable authority over the Portuguese who went to Masapa for purposes of trade, and he was the medium through whom all communications with the Monomotapa passed. He had the title of Capitão das Portas—Captain of the Gates,—on account of his peculiar position.

Luanze was about one hundred and five miles almost due south of Tete, between two rivulets which united below it and then flowed into the Mazoe. The principal Portuguese resident here was also a sub-chief of the Monomotapa, who placed the Bantu living at the station under his authority. He held a commission from the viceroy, making him head of the Portuguese frequenting the place; but he was not such an important personage as the Captain of the Gates.

Bukoto was about thirty miles from Masapa, thirty-nine from Luanze, and one hundred and twenty from Tete. It was situated just above the junction of two streamlets, and was the least important of the three places of fairs, with nothing particular to note about it. At none of them had the Portuguese any authority whatever over the natives except such as was derived from the Monomotapa, who permitted the trading stations to be established in his country on account of the benefit which he derived from them. By doing so he did not consider that he had diminished his right of sovereignty, and the exercise of authority by the captains over men of their own race, by virtue of power derived from the viceroy of India, was in full accordance with Bantu ideas of government being tribal rather than territorial.

The Monomotapa of the time when Dos Santos resided at Sofala, who bore also the title Mambo, was well disposed towards the Portuguese. He gave the Dominicans leave to establish missions in his country, and they had already put up little structures for places of prayer at Masapa, Luanze, and Bukoto. They had not as yet, however, men to occupy these places permanently, but the friar who resided at Tete occasionally visited them. The white people never made a request from Mambo without accompanying it with a present—usually a piece of coloured calico—for himself and something of equal value for his principal wife, their special pleader, whose name was Ma Zarira. This was the custom of the country, for no native could obtain an audience unless he presented an ox, a goat, or something else according to his means.

In describing the country Dos Santos mentions several kingdoms bordering on the territory of the Monomotapa, but in reality these were nothing more than tracts of land inhabited by native tribes under independent chiefs. The kingdom of Sedanda was one of those which he named. This was the territory lying between Sofala and the Sabi river, occupied by a tribe of the same blood as the Makalanga, under a chief who bore the hereditary title of Sedanda. One of the Sedandas in Dos Santos' time committed suicide, on account of his being afflicted with leprosy. Of the region west of the Monomotapa's territory the Portuguese knew nothing except from vague native reports, for no one of them or of the wandering Mohamedans had ever visited it. It would be useless therefore to repeat the names of the so-called kingdoms given by the Dominican friar. Of the longitudes of places he had of course no knowledge. He believed Angola could not be very far distant, and he states that a blanket brought overland from that country by native traders was purchased by a Portuguese at Manika and shown to him at Sofala as a curiosity. It is just possible that the blanket was carried across the continent, but it is much more likely that the friar was deceived as to the place from which it came. At

that time the head waters of the Zambesi were quite unknown, though the Portuguese were fairly well acquainted with the principal features of the great lake region, through accounts obtained from Mohamedan traders as well as from natives. Owing to this circumstance their maps of East Central Africa were tolerably correct, while those of South Africa were utterly misleading.

Dos Santos states that copper and iron were plentiful in the country. The iron was regarded as of superior quality, so much so that a quantity was once sent to India to make guns of. Though the smelting furnaces were of the crudest description, implements of this metal manufactured by themselves were used by the Makalanga in great abundance, just as a few years ago among the Bapedi farther south, where waggon loads could be collected at a single kraal. He mentions also the manufacture by some of the natives of machiras, or loin cloths, from cotton which grew wild along the banks of the Zambesi.

As yet no attempt had been made to colonise any part of Africa south of the Zambesi on one coast and Benguela on the other. Commerce and the conversion of the heathen were the sole objects of the Portuguese who visited the country, and indeed they had no surplus population with which to form settlements in it. They did not touch at any part of the coast between Benguela and Delagoa Bay when they could avoid doing so, because there was no trade of any kind to be carried on there and because after the slaughter of Dom Francisco d'Almeida and his people on the shore of Table Bay the Hottentots were regarded as the most ferocious of savages, with whom it was well to have as little intercourse as possible. They would have been pleased had they found a port somewhere on the southern shore that their ships could have taken shelter in when returning from India to Lisbon during the time of the westerly gales, but they always tried to pass by in the summer season and to make the run from Mozambique to the island of Saint Helena without a break.

Some years before the arrival of Dos Santos at Sofala a dreadful wave of war and destruction rolled over the country north of the lower Zambesi. A horde of savages made their appearance from a distant part of the continent, probably—judging from the few words of their language that have been preserved—from some locality on or near the western coast, and laid the whole territory along their course utterly waste. Theirs was just such another march as that of the horde under Ma Ntati, which passed over the country from the upper Caledon to the border of the Kalahari desert in the early years of the nineteenth century, leaving nothing behind it, where a thickly populated land had been, but ashes and skeletons of men and animals. And just as the horde under Ma Ntati broke into fragments and perished, so did this which appeared on the Zambesi opposite Tete in 1570.

Finding that stream a barrier which it could not cross intact, one large section turned to the north-east, and finally reached the shore of the Indian sea, along which it committed the most frightful ravages. The island of Mozambique could not be attacked, but its inhabitants suffered severely from the famine caused by the devastation of the mainland. A body of about forty Portuguese, under the captain Nuno Velho Pereira, with as many slaves as could be collected, endeavoured to protect the plantations at Cabaceira, but nearly the whole of them perished in the attempt, and their bodies were eaten by the savages on the shore. Only Nuno Velho Pereira and two or three other Europeans managed to escape. Thus the greater number of the inhabitants of the island were cut off, and those who remained were in the direst straits for want of food until supplies reached them by sea. This happened in the year 1585. What remained of ancient Kilwa was wiped out of existence, Mombasa was nearly destroyed, and the progress of the cannibal horde was only stopped at Melinde, where Mattheus Mendes de Vasconcellos, head of the factory, with thirty Portuguese, and three thousand Bantu warriors aided the Mohamedan ruler in inflicting a defeat upon them in which they were nearly exterminated.

Shortly after the first appearance of the great horde on the Bororo or northern bank of the Zambesi, a small party managed to cross the river, and appeared in the neighbourhood of Tete, but Jeronymo d'Andrade, captain of that station, had no difficulty in driving them back, as the savages were so amazed at the effects of the fire from a few arquebuses, which they attributed to witchcraft, that they fled without resistance.

Not long after this event another and much larger band, consisting of ten or twelve thousand men under a chief named Sonza, by some means got across the river, and attacked a clan that was friendly to the Portuguese, killing every living thing and destroying whatever they came across. Jeronymo d'Andrade got together a force of about a hundred Portuguese, and with some four thousand Batonga allies took the field against Sonza. On his approach some of the invaders constructed a rough lager or enclosure of bushes and earth, within which they attempted to defend themselves, but as they were still exposed to the fire of arquebuses they were speedily driven out and dispersed. They and the others of their party were then hunted until it was believed about five thousand had been killed. The remainder of the band escaped, and joined the horde that was laying waste the country towards the coast of Mozambique.

In 1592 two sections of these savages remained on the northern bank of the lower Zambesi. One was called by the Portuguese the Mumbos, the other was the far-dreaded Mazimba. Dos Santos says that both were cannibals, and there is no reason to doubt his assertion, for traditions concerning the Mazimba are still current all over Southern Africa, in which they are represented as ogres or inhuman monsters, and their name is used generally to imply eaters of human flesh. But in all probability they had adopted that custom from want of other food, and would have abandoned it gradually if they had obtained domestic cattle and could have cultivated gardens. The men were much stronger and more robust than Makalanga. They carried immense shields

made of ox hide, and were variously armed with assagais, battle-axes, and bows and arrows.

One of the chiefs of the Mumbos, named Kwizura, with about six hundred warriors, attacked a clan friendly to the Portuguese at Tshikarongo, north of the Zambesi, ten leagues from Tete. The clan fled after sustaining severe losses, and applied to Pedro Fernandes de Chaves, captain of Tete, for assistance. The captain thereupon summoned his eleven sub-chiefs, who at once joined him with their men, and with these and the resident Portuguese he crossed the river and marched against Kwizura, who was found in a chumbo or lager of stakes and earth which he had constructed. Together with the followers of the dispossessed chief the attacking force was so strong that it was able to surround the chumbo and storm it, when Kwizura and every one of his warriors fell. The courtyard of the hut in which the Mumbo chief had lived was found paved with the skulls of those he had killed and eaten. After resting a few days, the people of Tete returned to their homes, taking with them as slaves Kwizura's women and children. Such was the style of warfare on the Zambesi at the close of the sixteenth century.

Dos Santos was at Tete just before this event. After a residence of three years and a half at Sofala, during which time they baptized seventeen hundred individuals, most of whom must have been Bantu, he and his associate the friar João Madeira had been summoned to Mozambique by their provincial to labour in another field, and had left Sofala in July 1590 and travelled overland to the Zambesi in order to obtain a passage in a pangayo. But on their arrival they found no vessel would be leaving that year, so they arranged that João Madeira should remain at Sena and Dos Santos should proceed up the river to Tete to do duty for the priest there, who was prostrate with illness. He arrived at Tete in September 1590, and remained at that place until May 1591, when he went down to the mouth of the Zambesi, and with the father João Madeira proceeded to Mozambique. He was then sent to the island of Querimba, but in April 1594 was

instructed to proceed to Sofala again on a special mission. In consequence of this he went to Mozambique, and when the favourable monsoon set in took passage in a pangayo bound to Delagoa Bay, which was to touch at Sofala on the passage. Five days after leaving Mozambique he reached his destination. The pangayo proceeded to Delagoa Bay, where her officers employed themselves in bartering ivory for nearly a year. She was about to return to Mozambique when some Bantu fell upon her captain Manuel Malheiro and another officer, murdered them, and plundered the hut in which they had lived and the vessel. One white man remained alive, who succeeded in getting away with the empty pangayo and her Mohamedan crew. To such perils were the Portuguese exposed at the distant trading places on the coast.

On the 16th of April 1595 Dos Santos once more left Sofala for Mozambique, from which place he went to India, and then to Portugal, where his volume *Ethiopia Oriental* was printed in the Dominican convent at Evora in 1609. But his career in Africa was not yet ended, and we shall meet him again on the Zambesi in another chapter. His successor at Tete was the friar Nicolau do Rosario, of the same order, a man of great devotion, who had suffered much in the wreck of the ship *São Thomé* in 1589.

Before the destruction of Kwizura's band, while Dos Santos was still on the river, a powerful chief of the Mazimba, named Tondo, attacked some people who were on very friendly terms with the Portuguese and who lived on the northern bank of the Zambesi opposite Sena, dispossessed them of their land and killed and ate many of them. In 1592 these fugitives applied to André de Santiago, captain of Sena, for aid, and he, desiring to emulate the action of Pedro Fernandes de Chaves, collected as large a force as he could, Portuguese, mixed breeds, slaves, and friendly Bantu, and with two cannon taken from the walls of his fort crossed the river to attack the Mazimba, who were entrenched in a chumbo of unusual height and strength. Finding his force unequal to the enterprise he had undertaken, the captain of Sena formed a

camp on the bank of a rivulet flowing into the Zambesi, and sent to Tete for assistance.

Pedro Fernandes de Chaves responded by calling out his Bantu retainers and nearly all the Portuguese and half-breeds of Tete, with whom he crossed the Zambesi and marched down its northern bank towards the locality of the war. The Dominican friar Nicolau do Rosario accompanied the force as chaplain. When within a few miles of their destination the Portuguese and principal half-breeds, totally unsuspecting of danger, entered a thicket through which the path passed. They were half a league in advance of their Bantu auxiliaries, and, as was their usual way of travelling, were in palanquins and hammocks borne by their slaves, with other attendants carrying their arquebuses, when they were suddenly attacked by a band of Mazimba. Every man of them was killed on the spot except the friar, who was badly wounded and seized as a prisoner. He was taken to the chumbo and bound to a tree, where he was made a target for the arrows of his captors till death came to his relief. The Bantu auxiliaries, upon ascertaining what had happened, returned with all haste to Tete.

On the following morning the Mazimba appeared in triumph before André de Santiago's camp, with a man beating upon the drum taken from the Portuguese. Their chief was dressed in the murdered friar's robes, and the head of Pedro Fernandes de Chaves was carried aloft on the point of an assagai. The spoil taken in the thicket was exhibited in bravado, and with it the limbs of those who had fallen, which were destined to supply a feast for the cannibal band. The captain of Sena and his men looked at the cruel Mazimba with horror and dismay. That night they attempted to retreat, but on the bank of the Zambesi the enemy fell upon them, and after a stout resistance killed André de Santiago and many of his followers. The two captains, the priest of Tete, and a hundred and thirty white men and mixed breeds had now perished. The Portuguese power and influence on the Zambesi was almost annihilated.

While these events were taking place Dom Pedro de Sousa succeeded Lourenço de Brito as captain of Mozambique. At a later date he became very unpopular as a governor, being tyrannical in his conduct and permitting his son Dom Francisco to conduct himself as a brawler without reproof. For this he was punished by order of the king, but at the time to which this narrative has reached he was new to his office and therefore untried. He resolved to recover the position that had been lost on the Zambesi, and for this purpose he enlisted as many Europeans as were obtainable, and with them, seventy-five or eighty soldiers drawn from the garrison of the fort, and a good supply of artillery and other munitions of war, in 1593 he sailed for Sena. Here he formed a camp, and enlisted white men, mixed breeds, and Bantu, until he had a force under his command of about two hundred arquebusiers and fifteen hundred blacks armed in the native manner.

With these he crossed the river and attacked Tondo's stronghold, into which he tried to open an entrance with his cannon, but failed. Then he endeavoured to take the chumbo by storm, but when his men were crowded together close to it, the Mazimba shot their arrows, hurled their barbed assagais, and threw boiling water and burning fat upon them, until they fell back discomfited. Next he began to form huge wickerwork frames to be filled with earth, from the tops of which arquebusiers could keep the wall of the chumbo clear with their fire while men below were breaking it down, but before they could be completed the people he had engaged at Sena, who had now been two months in the field, clamoured to be allowed to return home, fearing, as they said, that their wives and children were in danger. Dom Pedro was obliged to accede to their demand, and commenced to retreat. While he was leaving his camp the Mazimba attacked him, and after killing many of his men, took his artillery and the greater part of his baggage. He and the remnant of his army escaped to Sena with difficulty, and from that place he returned to Mozambique, leaving

matters along the great river in a worse condition than ever before.

Tondo, however, made an offer of peace to the people of Sena, on condition that they should not interfere again in matters that only concerned Bantu tribes. The Mazimba, they were informed, had no desire to quarrel with white people, and had acted in self-defence throughout the war. The few traders at Sena were only too pleased to accept the proposal and resume their ordinary manner of living, though they had thereafter to submit to many insults and exactions from the victorious tribe. In 1597 some cannon and a quantity of ammunition and other supplies needed in war were sent from India by the viceroy, and the forts at Sena and Tete were equipped so that the inhabitants could find safety within them in case of attack. Gradually also men came to these stations to replace those who had been killed, so that in the time of Nuno da Cunha, who followed Jeronymo de Azevedo, Dom Pedro de Sousa's successor as captain of Mozambique, the villages recovered their earlier appearance.

The methods of carrying on trade in the country varied at different periods during the sixteenth century. At first it was conducted by factors appointed by the king, who sent out agents to sell goods supplied by the royal treasury, into which the proceeds were paid. After a time, however, the principal officials, whose salaries were very small, were allowed a share of the commerce, which was strictly defined. Thus, in 1559 the viceroy gave permission to Pantaleão de Sá, captain of Sofala and Mozambique, to purchase and send to India twenty-four tons* of ivory every year for sale on his own account. In 1562 Fernão Martins Freire d'Andrade, captain of Sofala and Mozambique, was granted by royal authority a monopoly of the commerce of the coast in pitch

* One hundred bars. The bar was a varying weight on the East African coast. At Mozambique it was equal to 229·6 kilogrammes of our time; on the Zambesi to 293·8 kilogrammes; at Sofala, if of ivory 239·8 kilogrammes, if of other merchandise 247·9 kilogrammes. Under these circumstances it is impossible in many instances to reduce these weights to English tons with absolute accuracy.

and coir, one-twentieth of the proceeds of the ivory barter upon his contributing one-twentieth of the capital employed in it, and was further to have a two-hundredth part of the profits on all other trade within the territory south of the Zambesi; and the factors and notaries were to have another two-hundredth part divided amongst them. The trade was still to be conducted for the royal treasury, and the captain was to send requisitions to Goa for the merchandise needed to carry it on.

In 1585 Dom Jorge de Menezes, chief ensign of Portugal, succeeded Nuno Velho Pereira as captain of Mozambique. On his appointment the viceroy Dom Duarte de Menezes granted him a monopoly of the trade of Inhambane and of the whole coast south of Delagoa Bay, and subsequently farmed out to him the entire commerce of the country south of the Zambesi for fifty thousand cruzados a year. But in addition to this he was to maintain the forts in good order and to pay all the officials and expenses of government of every kind, according to a list which was drawn up. On the expiration of his term of office he was to undergo a trial, and was to prove that these conditions had been faithfully observed and that all public buildings were in the same state as when he took them over.

This system had the advantage of adding something to the royal treasury, and of extending commerce more than ever before. When the experiment was made Sofala was yielding nothing except the profit on a small quantity of ivory, insufficient to meet the trifling cost of the maintenance of the station: four years later elephants' tusks weighing twenty-three tons were collected there yearly. Greater profit was gained from ivory than from any other article of commerce in Eastern Africa at this time. Taking one year with another, a quantity weighing nearly one hundred thousand avoirdupois pounds was sent annually to India by the captains while they had a monopoly of the trade. Gold came next, but the quantity obtained cannot be even approximately stated. Ambergris followed, and then in order pearls, gum, and wax.

The system made the whole of the Portuguese inhabitants of the country dependents of the captain of Mozambique, but their position was quite as bad before. The most that can be said in favour of it is that the law protected them in person and property, and that after 1548 no sentence of death could be carried into execution until it was confirmed by the supreme court of India.

In 1591 the government at Lisbon ordered the trade to be carried on again by the king's treasury, but two years later another experiment was made. This was to allow the captain of Mozambique a monopoly of the commerce in ivory, ambergris, and coir, and one-fiftieth of all the gold collected; and to throw open the trade in gold and other articles to all Portuguese subjects. Customs duties at the rate of six per cent upon goods imported and of twenty per cent upon gold exported were to be paid. This plan was in operation only two years when it was abandoned, and the system of farming out the whole of the commerce of the country south of the Zambesi to the captain of Mozambique was again resorted to. In 1596 Nuno da Cunha was appointed to that office, when the viceroy entered into a contract with him to pay forty thousand pardaos, or £9,600,* a year for his monopoly, to which the king added that he must also pay customs duties on merchandise imported.

North of the Zambesi the inhabitants of Mozambique were allowed to trade, as the policy of the government was to encourage them, in order to strengthen the means of defence of the fort. The jurisdiction of the captain at the close of the sixteenth century extended to all the stations and trading places from the island of Inyaka to Cape Delgado.

* Reckoning the pardao at three hundred and sixty reis, and the real as at this time equal to 0.16*d*. But it is very doubtful what the word pardao really signified in the contract. In another document I have found it used as an equivalent for cruzado, and in still another as equivalent to a xerafin of three hundred reis. If the gold coin of the name was meant, the amount would be about £14,000. It is not possible to give the exact equivalent, as unless where expressly stated as of gold, the pardao of the accounts, like the real, was an imaginary coin, representing different values not only at different times but at different places at the same time.

CHAPTER XII.

KNOWLEDGE DERIVED FROM SHIPWRECKS.

Of the Bantu tribes along the seaboard north of the Bashee a good deal of knowledge was obtained during the sixteenth century by the crews of wrecked ships, some of whom underwent almost incredible suffering before their restoration to the society of civilised men. By order of King Sebastião a flying survey of the coast between the Cape of Good Hope and Cape Correntes was also made during the years 1575 and 1576, by which much information was supposed to have been gained.

Occasionally vessels disappeared after leaving Portugal or India, and were never heard of again. Some of these were probably lost on the African shore, though of this there is no certainty except in one instance, when part of a stranded ship was found at the mouth of the river now known as the Saint Lucia, but without a trace of any one that had sailed in her. Particulars, however, have been preserved of the loss successively of the *São João*, the *São Bento*, the *Santiago*, the *São Thomé*, and the *Santo Alberto*, from each of which some of the crew escaped, and after much intercourse with the natives succeeded in reaching Mozambique.

The *São João* was a great galleon laden with a very valuable cargo, which left Cochin on the 3rd of February 1552 to return to Portugal. She had about two hundred and twenty Portuguese and nearly four hundred slaves on board, and, as was usual at that time, an officer of high rank who was going home was captain in command. The master of the ship directed the working, and the pilot pointed out the

course, but the captain gave instructions in such matters as what ports they were to put into and when they were to sail; he also preserved discipline and exercised general control. The captain of the *São João*—Manuel de Sousa Sepulveda by name—was accompanied by his wife, Dona Leonor, a young and amiable lady of noble blood, his two little sons, and a large train of attendants and slaves, male and female.

On the 12th of May, when only seventy-five miles from the Cape of Good Hope, the galleon encountered a violent gale from the west-north-west, and soon a very heavy sea was running, as is usually the case when the wind and the Agulhas current oppose each other. Some sails had been lost in a storm on the equator, and there were no others on board than those in use, which were old and worn. On this account it was not considered prudent to attempt to lie to, and so the ship was put before the wind under her fore and main courses. After some days the gale veered to another quarter, shifting at last to the west-south-west, when the tremendous seas caused the ship to labour so heavily that she lost her masts and rudder. Those on board feared every moment that she would go down. An attempt was made, however, to set up jury masts, to fix a new rudder, and with some cloth that was on board converted into a substitute for sails to endeavour to reach Mozambique. But the new rudder, being too small, proved useless, and the galleon like a helpless log was driven towards the coast, from which there were no means of keeping her. On the 8th of June she was close to the land a little to the eastward of the mouth of the Umzimvubu, very near if not exactly off the spot where the English ship *Grosvenor* was lost two hundred and thirty years later. There, as the weather had moderated, the bower anchors were dropped, between which the galleon lay at a distance of two crossbow shots from the shore, almost waterlogged.

The captain now resolved to land the people and as much provisions and other necessaries as possible, to construct a temporary fort, and with materials taken from the ship to build a small caravel that could be sent to Sofala for aid.

There was no hope of saving the cargo, but he thought of getting out some calico with which to obtain food in barter from the natives of the country, if that should be needed. Only two boats were left, of which one was little larger than a skiff. In these the captain, his family, and about seventy others were conveyed to the shore. But on the third day the wind freshened and caused a heavy swell, both the boats were dashed to pieces on the rocks, and the seaward cable of the galleon parting, she was driven on shore and within a few hours broke into fragments. Over a hundred men and women were lost in the surf, and many of those who reached the land alive were badly bruised.

All hope of getting timber to build a caravel was now lost, and only a small quantity of food was secured. As soon therefore as the bruised people were sufficiently recovered to travel, the whole party set out to try to walk along the shore to the river of Lourenço Marques. To that place a small vessel was sent nearly every year from Mozambique to barter ivory, and the only faint chance of preserving their lives that remained to the shipwrecked people was to reach the river and find the trading party. They had seen some Kaffirs on the hills close by, and had heard those barbarians shouting to each other, but had not been able to obtain any information or provisions from them.

On the 7th of July they left the scene of the wreck. At the end of a month they were only ninety miles from it, for they had been obliged to make many detours in order to cross the rivers. Their sufferings from thirst were at times greater than from cold, hunger, and weariness combined. Of all the party Dona Leonor was the most cheerful, bidding the others take heart, and talking of the better days that were to come. They eked out their little supply of food with wild plants, oysters, and mussels, and sometimes they found quite an abundance of fish in pools among the rocks at low tide.

And now every day two or three fell behind exhausted, and perished. To add to their troubles, bands of Kaffirs hovered about them, and on several occasions they were attacked, though

as they had a few firelocks and some ammunition, they were easily able to drive their assailants back. At the end of three months those who were in advance reached the territory of the old Inyaka, whom Lourenço Marques and Antonio Caldeira had named Garcia de Sá, and whose principal kraal was on the right bank of the Umfusi river, which flows into Delagoa Bay. This chief received them in a friendly manner, supplied them with food and lodging, and sent his men to search for those who were straggling on behind. In return, he asked for assistance against a chief living about twenty miles to the southward, with whom he was at war. De Sousa sent an officer and twenty men to help him, with whose aid he won a victory and got possession of all his opponent's cattle.

Garcia de Sá wished the white people to remain with him, and he warned them against a tribe that lived in front, but as soon as they were well rested and had recovered their strength, they resolved to push on. They crossed the Maputa in canoes furnished by the friendly chief, and five days later reached the Espirito Santo, where they learned from some natives, through the interpretation of a female slave from Sofala who had picked up a little of the dialect, that a vessel from Mozambique, having men like themselves on board, had been there, but was then a long time gone. Manuel de Sousa now became partly demented, and his brave wife, Dona Leonor, who had borne all the hardships of the journey so cheerfully, was plunged by this new misfortune into the greatest distress.

With what object is not stated, but for some reason they still pressed on northward. They were reduced to one hundred and twenty souls, all told, when they crossed the Espirito Santo or river of Lourenço Marques in canoes supplied by the natives at the price of a few nails, and entered the territory of the chief of whom Garcia de Sá had warned them. His kraal was about three miles farther on. He professed to receive them with favour, and for a few days supplied them with provisions, but at length informed them that they must entrust him with the care of their arms while they were in his country, as that was one of his laws. Dona Leonor objected to this, but the

males of the party complied with the chief's demand, in the belief that by doing so they would secure his friendship. As soon as they were in a defenceless condition he caused them to be separated, under pretence of distributing them among different kraals where they would be provided with food, but kept the captain with his family and about twenty others at his own residence.

Those who dispersed were immediately stripped of their clothing and driven away to perish. Then the captain was robbed of a quantity of precious stones—worth several thousand pounds—as well as some gold that he had with him, and he and his family and attendants were ordered to leave the kraal. They wandered about for two days, without meeting any of their late associates in misery, when some natives fell upon them and stripped them naked. Dona Leonor, who fought like a tigress while the savages were tearing her garments from her, sat down on the ground with her two little boys, her half demented husband, and a few faithful female slaves beside her. The white men of the party, who could do nothing to relieve such anguish as hers, went on in search of wild plants with which to prolong their lives. Shortly afterwards one of the boys died of hunger, when the father scraped a hole in the sand and buried the body. The next day he went to seek some roots or berries for his starving wife, and on his return found her and the other child dead and the slave women wailing loudly. They buried the mother and child in the sand, after which the sorely afflicted nobleman disappeared in a thicket, and was never seen again.

Eight Portuguese, fourteen male slaves, and three of the female slaves who were with Dona Leonor when she died, managed to preserve their lives. Some of them wandered to a distance of fifty miles from the scene of the last disaster. At length a trading vessel put into the bay in search of ivory, and her captain, hearing of the unfortunate people, rescued them by offering for each one a trifling reward in beads.

They reached Mozambique on the 25th of May 1553. Diogo de Mesquita, who was then captain of that island and the

stations south of the Zambesi, sent a little vessel to search along the coast, but no trace of any of the lost people could be found.

The *São Bento* was one of a fleet of five ships sent by King João the third to India in March 1553. Among those who sailed in her on her outward passage was Luis de Camões, whose name still lives as that of the prince of Portuguese poets. She was one of the largest vessels of her time, and was commanded by Fernão Alvares Cabral, who was commodore of the squadron. Having reached her destination in safety, she took in a return cargo, and sailed from Cochin on the 1st of February 1554. On the passage stormy weather with a very heavy sea was encountered, in which the ship sustained great damage, and when she reached the African coast it was feared every moment that she would go to the bottom. On the 21st of April she struck upon a rocky ledge on the western side of the mouth of the Umtata,* and in a few minutes broke into fragments.

Forty-four Portuguese and over a hundred slaves lost their lives in trying to reach the shore, and two hundred and twenty-four slaves and ninety-nine Portuguese, many of them severely bruised, managed to get to land. Among the latter was Manuel de Castro, one of the few survivors of the crew of the *São João*, who died, however, a few hours later from injuries received during the breaking up of the ship. A small quantity of provisions was washed ashore with the débris of the cargo, but it was so much damaged with salt water that it could not long remain fit for use.

* Termed the Infante in the account of the wreck given by one of the officers who was saved, but there is ample evidence in this document and in another by the same officer that the Umtata was the scene of the disaster. On that wild and little frequented coast the mouth of any considerable stream south of the Umzimvubu would be set down as the Infante by a Portuguese who saw it. He would know there was a large river of that name somewhere between the Umzimvubu and the islet of the Cross, and he would not know there were many others. The crew of the *São Bento* passed over no stream of any importance before they reached the Umzimvubu, the *São Christovão* as they termed it.

After this was collected and a temporary shelter was made of carpets and silks, a general consultation took place as to what was best to be done. Some thought it advisable to try to march overland to the Watering Place of Saldanha, but this was overruled by the majority, because of the fierceness of the natives in that direction, as had been proved by the slaughter of the viceroy D'Almeida and so many of his companions, and further because vessels very seldom called there and consequently, even if they should arrive with life, most probably all would perish before relief appeared. Others were of opinion that they should remain where they were and endeavour to construct some kind of craft that could be sent to Sofala for aid, but this too was overruled, as the supply of food would soon be exhausted and they had no proper materials for building a boat. There was then but one other plan. Before they left India Lourenço Marques was preparing for a voyage to the river which bore his name, in order to trade for ivory, and their only hope of life was to make their way northward and reach him before his departure, which would be some time in June, or, if that should fail, to push on to Sofala.

Accordingly, on the 27th of April they set out, each one heavily laden with food, pieces of calico, and nails or other iron for barter. A ship's boy and a female slave, who were too severely hurt to live long, were of necessity left behind. They had seen a few naked natives at the place of the wreck, but there were no huts or any indications of kraals in the neighbourhood, so after crossing the river they directed their course inland, towards the north-east, in hope of finding people from whom they could obtain guides and provisions in exchange for iron. But for four days they were disappointed, and when on the fifth day of their march they came to a kraal of about twenty huts, its inhabitants were found to be living on wild roots and plants, so that no food was to be had from them.

Finding the country almost uninhabited, a little later they resolved to turn towards the shore, where they could at least obtain shellfish, and where they believed the rivers could be more easily crossed than inland, as all had bars of sand at

their mouths. Before they reached the Umzimvubu several of the weakest of the party became utterly exhausted, and were abandoned on the way. The passage of this river was accomplished with the greatest difficulty, and on the following day, the thirteenth of the journey, the sea was reached at the place where the *São João* was lost. Some of her timbers were still to be seen, and in a deserted kraal in the neighbourhood pieces of chinaware and other articles used by Europeans were found.

After this, keeping along the shore, they found a good supply of mussels and oysters, and considered the beach much better for travelling over than the rough mountains and valleys inland. The country was inhabited, but the natives were hostile, bands of them constantly hovering about, ready to attack loiterers. Five days after leaving the Umzimvubu they reached the Umtamvuna, which they crossed on rafts, after a skirmish with the natives. Four days later they were on the right bank of the Umzimkulu. Here the people were very friendly, singing and clapping their hands as they came forward to see the strangers, and bringing food to sell for little pieces of iron. It was the first they had been able to purchase since they set out on their journey twenty-two days before. Here was found a young man from Bengal who had been left behind by Manuel de Sousa's party, but as he could not speak Portuguese he was of little or no service. He declined to leave the connections he had formed, and when Cabral went on two Portuguese and about thirty slaves remained with him and the friendly natives.

Three days march farther brought them to the Umkomanzi, which they crossed at a ford pointed out by some Kaffirs, whose friendship they requited by endeavouring to make prize of a large basket of millet. This brought on a skirmish, which ended, however, in their opponents being compelled to retire. At the Umkomanzi they were joined by a young man named Gaspar, a Moor by birth, who was left behind by Manuel de Sousa. He had acquired the native language, but was glad of an opportunity to get away from the country,

and so went on with them and made himself useful as an interpreter.

At the end of another three days they were at a place which they called the mouth of the Pescaria, and which, from the description given, was in all probability the inlet on which the present city of Durban is situated. They were not the first white men, however, that saw it, for Manuel de Sousa had passed round its shores, and of his party a Portuguese named Rodrigo Tristão, a young man from Malabar, and two slaves were then living there. The natives were very friendly, and brought such a quantity of provisions, including goats, to sell for iron, that they easily supplied themselves with as much as they could consume and carry away. Rodrigo Tristão went on with them, but the Indian and the slaves preferred to remain where they were.

They were six days marching to the Tugela, which they termed the Saint Lucia, stopping on the journey only to purchase a cow and to take the needful rest, though they suffered greatly from thirst. The river was crossed on rafts, but the captain Fernão Alvares Cabral and another white man were overturned in the current and lost their lives. Francisco Pires, the boatswain, was then chosen to lead the party, and after resting a day they moved on.

South of the Tugela they had suffered much from hunger, thirst, and fatigue, but they had managed to move forward about eight miles a day in a direct line, perhaps actually walking thirteen or fourteen. They were now entering a district much more difficult to travel in, owing to the swamps and sheets of shallow water that abounded in it, the want of shellfish on the sandy coast, and the poverty of the natives, most of whom were hostile. Their iron for barter was nearly exhausted, and only on a very few occasions were they able to purchase a little food. One day's hardships resembled those of the next: struggling through marshes, fainting with hunger, skirmishing with natives, their number decreased rapidly. To such a condition were they reduced that some of them cooked and ate human flesh. At length, on the 7th of July fifty-six

Portuguese and six slaves, reduced almost to skeletons and covered with rags, reached the kraal of the Inyaka, Garcia de Sá, on the south-eastern shore of Delagoa Bay.

Here they were at first well received, but from the avidity with which the Portuguese ivory traders the year before had purchased the gold and jewels taken from Manuel de Sousa the chief had learned how valuable these things were, and presently he required the unfortunate men to give him everything they had in exchange for food. When they had done this they found that there was at the time such a scanty supply of provisions in the country that the chief, with the best intentions, could not furnish sufficient to keep them alive, and thus they were little better off than before. From their faulty chart they believed the river of Lourenço Marques to be still eighteen leagues distant, but they were so destitute and exhausted that they could go no farther. Hunger, sickness, ravenous animals, and vermin had to be contended with, and to add to their distress the interpreter Gaspar, who had ingratiated himself with the chief, treated them with the utmost cruelty and scorn.

Then they scattered about in different kraals, and were everywhere treated with such indignity and suffered such misery that the living envied those who died. At last, on the 3rd of November a sail appeared in the bay, to the inexpressible joy of the few who still survived. It was the trading vessel from Mozambique, commanded by Bastião de Lemos, who received his almost expiring countrymen with every mark of kindness, and did what he could to restore them to health and vigour. From him they learned that the cause of Lourenço Marques not having visited that part of the coast during the preceding season was his having suffered shipwreck on the passage.

Four months and a half the little vessel remained in the bay, her crew trading for ivory with the different chiefs in reach of their boats. On the 20th of March 1555 with the first westerly wind of the season she sailed for Mozambique, taking with her Rodrigo Tristão, of the *São João*, and twenty

Portuguese and four slaves, of the *São Bento*. Of the three hundred and twenty individuals who set out from the mouth of the Umtata, all the others had either perished or were left behind at native kraals on the line of march.

A few years later Francisco Barreto, shortly after being governor-general of India, narrowly escaped shipwreck on the African coast. Upon the arrival of his successor, the viceroy Dom Constantino de Bragança, on the 20th of January 1559 he left Goa in the ship *Aguia* to return to Portugal. Very heavy weather was encountered off the southern shore, and the ship was so disabled that it was with difficulty she could be kept afloat. Barreto then resolved to get as far back towards Mozambique as possible, to keep close to the land on the way, and to run the hulk aground in the last extremity. Fortunately, however, he was not obliged to resort to this extreme measure, for the wind was favourable and the island was reached without further disaster.

The *Aguia* was unladen and repaired at Mozambique, and on the 17th of November she set sail once more. She had not proceeded far when she again sprang a leak, and soon afterwards a westerly gale was encountered which lasted three days. The pilot, who was a veteran in the service, declared that such an occurrence at that time of the year had never been known before, and as all on board looked upon it as a warning from God not to persevere in the voyage, the ship's head was again turned towards Mozambique.

Barreto now abandoned the *Aguia* and proceeded to India in a little vessel, in which he nearly perished of thirst on the passage. After some delay at Goa he embarked in the homeward bound ship *São Gião*, and without further mishap reached Lisbon in June 1561, twenty-nine months after he first set out to return to that city.

Owing to this occurrence and others of a similar nature, King Sebastião issued instructions to Manuel de Mesquita Perestrello, one of the surviving officers of the *São Bento*, to survey the African coast from Cape Correntes to the Cape of Good Hope, and ascertain if there were any harbours in which

ships could winter if necessary and at all times find shelter during those gales from the westward that caused the heavy sea. For this purpose the experienced seaman left Mozambique in a small vessel on the 22nd of November 1575. No method of determining longitudes was then known, and the instrument used for ascertaining the sun's altitude at noon was so clumsy that observations made with it on shipboard were almost always incorrect. Some of the latitudes of points on the coast given by Manuel de Mesquita are more than fifty miles from their true position, and in his report, which was intended to be a guide for navigators, he lays down as a rule that the topography of the different places visited must alone be depended upon.

His survey therefore was nothing more than an inspection from the deck of his vessel of the shore from about the Kowie river westward, but soundings were taken, the compass bearings of the points of the bays from the anchorages within them were ascertained, and sketches—some of them almost grotesque—of the scenery at each one were made. Distances were laid down merely by guess. As far as the coast between the Bird islands and Delagoa Bay was concerned he depended upon his overland journey twenty-one years before, and as he mistook the Umtata for the river now known as the Fish, his observations upon that part of the seaboard were most inaccurate. Thus he estimated the mouth of the Umzimvubu—by him called the São Christovão—as only about twenty-eight English miles from that of the Fish, and in his chart also he lays it down in that position. Here he actually made an error of fully one hundred and sixty English miles.

The best shelter along the whole coast, according to him, was to be found within the curve of the land at the mouth of the Breede river, to which as a compliment to the king he gave the name Saint Sebastian's Bay. There, he reported, a vessel would be protected from all winds except those from east-north-east to south-east. An east wind was blowing when he was there, to which he attributed the heavy surf on the bar at the mouth of the Breede river, but he thought that during

the westerly monsoon the passage would be smooth, and then a whole fleet might enter the inner harbour and be perfectly landlocked. The place abounded with fish, and plenty of fresh water was to be had.

Next in importance he regarded the Watering Place of Saint Bras, now called Mossel Bay. He described it as sheltered from all winds except those from north-east to south-east by east, and as having good holding ground for anchors. The islet in it he found covered with seals and penguins. Of the hermitage built there more than half a century earlier, and dedicated to Saint Bras, nothing now remained but portions of the walls three or four feet in height. On the highest point of the western cape on the 7th of January 1576 he set up a wooden cross, and attached to it a sealed tube containing a record of the event.

Fermosa Bay—now Plettenberg's Bay—and the bay which he named Saint Francis he also regarded as good ports for the purpose needed, both being sheltered from all winds excepting those from the north-east to the south, having good ground for anchoring, and plenty of fresh water within reach. Of the bay Da Lagoa—now Algoa—he thought less highly, though he was of opinion that shelter could be found near the islet of the Cross.

His latitudes and distances are so incorrect that it is impossible to state with precision the limits of his land of Natal, but he seems to have regarded the coast from about the Kei to the Umkomanzi as coming under that designation. He described it as being without ports or rivers into which large ships could enter. Of the inlet termed in modern times the bay of Natal he makes no mention whatever, though his Point Pescaria is most probably the present Bluff.

The bay into which the rivers Maputa, Santo Espirito, and Manisa flow he was able to describe more accurately than any other on the south-eastern coast, owing to his residence on its shores in former years. The old Inyaka Garcia de Sá, who had assisted the wrecked people of the *São João* and the *São Bento*, was still alive in 1576.

Of the remaining part of the survey it is needless to state anything more than that it was in all respects so defective that it could not have been of use to vessels frequenting the coast, if there had been any such. Manuel de Mesquita's report marks the highest point of knowledge of the African shore south of Delagoa Bay acquired by the Portuguese before they were superseded in the eastern traffic by the Dutch, but for any other purpose it is valueless. Saint Sebastian's Bay, Saint Francis Bay, and Point Delgada still retain the names which he gave to them, and it is interesting to remember that the first of these serves to connect South Africa with the young and gallant king who disappeared in battle with the Moors at El-Kasr el-Kebir, but who, in the belief of the lower classes of the Portuguese for generations, was one day to reappear and restore his country to its former glory.*

The narrative of the wreck of the ship *Santiago* throws hardly any special light upon the condition of the natives, but from it some particulars concerning the trade of the Portuguese along the lower Zambesi are to be obtained. The *Santiago* sailed from Lisbon for Goa on the 1st of April 1585, with more than four hundred and fifty souls on board, and in the night of the 18th of August struck upon a shoal in the Mozambique channel, where she went to pieces. Five or six rafts were made, and on these and in two small boats some of the people tried to get to the African coast. One raft and the two boats succeeded in reaching the shore between the Luabo and the Quilimane mouths, the people on the other rafts were either drowned or perished from starvation.

The commerce of the delta of the Zambesi and of the terri-

* The names on Perestrello's chart are the following : Cabo de Boa Esperança, Cabo Falso, Cabo das Agulhas, Cabo do Infante, Bahia de S. Sebastião, Cabo das Vacas, Cabo de S. Bras, Agoada de S. Bras, Cabo Talhado, Bahia de S. Caterina, Cabo das Baxas, Ponta Delgada, Bahia Formosa, Cabo das Serras, Bahia de S. Francisco, Cabo do Arrecife, Ilha da Cruz, Bahia da Lagoa, Ilheos Chaos, Ponta do Padrão, Rio do Infante, Rio de S. Christovão, Primeira Ponta do Natal, Ponta do Meio, Ponta Derradeira, Ponta de Pescaria, Ponta de S. Lucia, Rio de S. Lucia, Rio dos Medãos do Ouro, Ponta dos Fumos, Terra dos Fumos, Bahia de Lourenço Marquês, Rio do Santo Espirito, Rio do Maniça, and Rio do Ouro.

tory bordering upon it to the south was at this time to a small extent in the hands of Arab mixed breeds, who professed to be vassals of the Portuguese. The principal man among them was one Muinha Sedaca, who was wealthy and had a large establishment. He showed much kindness to those of the wrecked people who landed near his residence, and assisted them to reach a place of safety.

The chief commerce, however, was in the hands of a Portuguese named Francisco Brochado, who had acquired great influence and power in the country. He was a man of good family, and had settled on the Zambesi thirty years before. He had two great establishments, consisting entirely of slaves, one at Quilimane, the other on the Luabo, and at each he resided during a portion of the year. His generosity to his wrecked countrymen was unbounded, and by him they were clothed and otherwise cared for until they could embark at Quilimane for Mozambique.

Francisco Brochado held the title of an office from the Portuguese government, but his power was not due to that: it was owing solely to the influence which a resolute, active, and able man had acquired over a community of barbarians. It was entirely personal. Portuguese rule existed at Quilimane, and, above the delta, at Sena, but except at those stations native chiefs governed their followers, and knew nothing of foreign supremacy beyond the influence which Brochado had gained among them. He had leased from the captain of Sofala and Mozambique a monopoly of the commerce of the delta, and all the boats on the rivers—excepting a few small ones owned by the Arab mixed breeds—were in his service. The profits were commonly enormous, but the trade was fluctuating and subject to many reverses.

In January 1589 the ship *São Thomé* sailed from Cochin for Portugal. No vessel so richly laden had left the Indian seas for many years, but so widespread was corruption among the officials of all classes that she was very insufficiently furnished for the passage. Her captain was a man of little ability, named Estevão da Veiga. There were many passengers on board,

among whom were Dom Paul de Lima and his lady Dona Beatrice, Bernardim de Carvalho, Gregorio Botelho and his daughter Dona Mariana, who was proceeding to Portugal to rejoin her husband Guterre de Monroy, Dona Joanna de Mendonça, widow of Gonçalo Gomes d'Azevedo, who had her only child, a little girl not two years of age, with her, and Diogo de Couto, who had been wrecked before in the *Santiago*.

The officers were desirous of reaching the island of St. Helena before any of the other vessels which left Cochin at the same time, so they crowded on sail until the ship sprang a leak off the southern point of Madagascar. The leak was partly stopped, and the ship continued on her course until the 12th of March, when a south-westerly wind was encountered, and the water began anew to gain rapidly on the pumps. An effort was then made to reach Mozambique, pumping and baling were carried on incessantly, and the ship was lightened as much as possible, but a few days later it was seen that she could not float many hours longer.

There was a very large boat on the deck, which was now got into the water. A scramble took place, each man striving to fight his way into it, so that by the time it got clear of the ship it contained no fewer than one hundred and nine individuals. The three ladies were among the number, but the agony of the widow De Mendonça was intense, for her child was in the sinking ship, and its nurse would not give it up unless she too were rescued. This was not possible, for already the boat was so overcrowded that to lighten her twelve men were thrown out and drowned.

There was a Dominican friar, Nicolau of the Rosary by name, on board the *São Thomé*, and those in the boat shouted to him to jump overboard and swim to them, when they would pick him up, but he would not leave the ship until he had attended to the spiritual needs of those who were about to die. When that was done, he sprang into the sea, swam to the boat, and was taken in.

At ten in the morning the ship was seen to go down. Early

next day, the 22nd of March, the boat reached the coast of the territory now called Tongaland, which was then occupied by the Makomata tribe. Some sailors landed, and found a kraal not far off, where they were treated in a friendly manner. The officers now resolved to proceed along the coast to the river of Lourenço Marques, but as the wind freshened they were unable to carry out that design in the boat, which would certainly have foundered. They therefore ran her ashore, and burned her to get nails to trade with, after which they set out to march overland. They were in all ninety-eight souls, and they had five guns with ammunition, as many swords, and a little food.

On their journey they encountered many natives, a few hostile, but the greater number friendly, and they were able to exchange their nails for hens, goats, fish, and bruised millet, so that they did not suffer much from hunger before their arrival at the kraal of the Inyaka chief, who was son and successor of Garcia de Sá. This chief treated them as well as he could, but his resources were insufficient for the maintenance of so many persons thrown thus suddenly upon him. He therefore proposed that they should take up their abode on Elephant Island, then called Setimuro, where he would send them as much food as he could collect until the arrival of the trading vessel from Mozambique in the following year. The one of this season had sailed only a few days before.

The wrecked people fell in with this proposal, and were conducted to Elephant Island, which was uninhabited. It was on that account used as their principal station by the Portuguese ivory traders when they visited the bay. The huts which they had put up provided accommodation for the castaways, and they had left there two native boats that could be turned to account. The want of food, which the Inyaka could not supply in sufficient quantity, here after a short time became so pressing that the party resolved to attempt to push on to Sofala as their only hope of life.

On the 18th of April sixty of them set out in the two

boats for the northern shore of the bay, after arranging that a few sailors should return for the others, thirty-six in number, who were left behind. One of the boats safely reached the mouth of the Manisa, where its crew were informed that at the kraal of the chief, twelve leagues up the stream, there were some Portuguese. They therefore went up the river, and found Jeronymo Leitão, the master of the trading vessel that had left Elephant Island about a month before, with his companions. He informed them that he had put into the Limpopo, where he had been robbed of his vessel and cargo, and had then travelled overland to the kraal of Manisa, who had treated him kindly. The chief received the people of the boat in a friendly manner, and provided for their wants.

The other boat got into the surf, and was run ashore near the mouth of the Limpopo, where she was of necessity abandoned. Her crew then set out to march northward. Most of the natives on the way gave them assistance, but their sufferings were so great from hunger, thirst, fatigue, and fever, that nearly half of them perished. The survivors passed through Gamba's country and Inhambane, and a little farther on found a Portuguese trader with a boat. He took them across to the island of Bazaruta, which was then occupied by Arabs of mixed blood, who treated them very well. There was also a native of Sofala living on the island, and this man procured a small vessel, in which they completed their journey to the Portuguese station, where their troubles ended.

Meantime fever attacked the Europeans at Manisa's kraal and those left on Elephant Island, so that it was some time before the latter could be taken across to their friends. Manisa was able to provide them all with food, so they did not attempt to go farther. Jeronymo Leitão, who was accustomed to deal with natives, had sent messengers overland to Sofala, to inform the captain there of what had occurred. That officer, on receiving the intelligence, at once sent a small pangayo with necessary articles, and as at that season of the year she could not sail to the river Manisa, her cargo was landed at Inhambane and then forwarded overland by native

carriers. Before this assistance arrived, Dom Paul de Lima, Bernardim de Carvalho, and many other males of the party had died, but the three ladies were still living. They remained at Manisa's kraal until the change of the monsoon permitted a pangayo to be sent for them, in which they went to Mozambique, and there embarked in a ship bound to Goa.

On the 21st of January 1593 the ship *Santo Alberto* sailed from Cochin for Lisbon. She was commanded by the captain Julião de Faria Cerveira, and had as pilot a man of experience named Rodrigo Miguels. Among those on board were Dona Isabella Pereira, daughter of Francisco Pereira, an officer at Goa, and widow of Diogo de Mello Coutinho, who had been captain of Ceylon, Dona Luiza, daughter of that lady, a girl sixteen years of age, Nuno Velho Pereira, recently captain of Mozambique, and two friars. There were many other passengers, some of them gentlemen of position.

In latitude 10° S. the ship sprang a leak, and could not afterwards be freed of water. On the 21st of March the African coast was in sight, in latitude $31\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ according to observations with the astrolabe, and here the leak increased greatly. The ship was lightened as much as possible, the pumps were kept constantly at work, and baling was resorted to, but the water in the hold continued to rise. In order therefore to save the lives of those on board, as there was no hope of being able to keep afloat much longer, the *Santo Alberto* was run ashore. Between nine and ten o'clock in the morning of the 24th of March she struck about three or four hundred yards from the beach. One hundred and twenty-five Portuguese, including the two ladies, and one hundred and sixty slaves got safely to land, and twenty-eight Portuguese and thirty-four slaves were drowned.

Fortunately a quantity of stores of different kinds, arms, ammunition, bales of calico, pieces of metal, beads, an astrolabe, some writing paper, and other articles were saved from the wreck. The pilot believed the latitude of the place to be $32\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ S., but that was certainly an error, because there was only one

large river between it and the Umzimvubu, and if it had been correct the Bashee and the Umtata must have been crossed. The Portuguese maps were still so defective that the position of all but very prominent places upon them was uncertain. The wrecked crew of the *Santo Alberto* believed the remarkable rock now known as the Hole in the Wall, close to which they were, to be the Penedo das Fontes of Dias, and the first river beyond, which was the Umtata of our day, to be the Rio do Infante of that explorer. From this time onward until their arrival at Delagoa Bay, to which place they resolved to proceed, the pilot kept a journal, in which he noted the distances travelled, the direction, occasionally the latitude, particulars concerning barter, observations upon the natives, and other matters of interest. Many Bantu words given in this journal are easily made out, and from the observations recorded the route of the party can be laid down nearly—if not quite—accurately on a modern map.*

The wrecked people commenced their journey from the streamlet Mpako, about ten miles west of the mouth of the Umtata. The great rock, which then, according to the journal, bore the name Tizombe, is now called Zikali. Nuno Velho Pereira, being a man of rank and experience, was elected leader, and Antonio Godinho, who had for a long time traded at stations in the Zambesi valley, took charge of the barter, on which the very lives of the travellers depended. Arrangements were made for the journey similar to those of a trading caravan. Calico, beads, and pieces of metal were done up in packs to be carried by the slaves, and the arms and provisions were borne by the Portuguese.

While these preparations were in progress, on the 27th of March a native chief with sixty followers made his appearance. His name, as recorded, was Luspance. Calling out Nanhata! Nanhata! in a friendly tone, the band came for-

* I am indebted for assistance in tracing this route to Walter Stanford, Esquire, C.M.G., recently chief magistrate of Griqualand East. This gentleman is thoroughly acquainted with the territory, which I have not had an opportunity of examining.

ward, when the chief presented two large sheep with heavy tails like those of Ormus. Among the slaves was one who could make himself understood by Luspace, and who spoke also the language of the Bantu of Mozambique. Another slave spoke the last-named language and also Portuguese, so that through two intermediary interpreters the Europeans could make their wants known. And throughout one of the most remarkable journeys ever made in South Africa slaves of the party could always converse with the natives, a circumstance which tended greatly towards the safety of all.

Luspace is described as a man of good stature, light in colour, of a cheerful countenance, and about forty-five years of age. He and his people wore karosses of oxhide made soft by rubbing and greasing, and they had sandals on their feet. They could run with great speed. In their hands they carried sticks with jackals' tails attached to them, and the chief had as an ornament a piece of copper suspended from his left ear. They were husbandmen and graziers. Their grain was millet of the size of peppercorns, which was ground between two stones, and of which they also made beer. Their wealth consisted of cattle, whose milk was one of their ordinary articles of diet. Their huts were round and low, were covered with reed mats, and were not proof against rain. They had pots made of clay, used assagais in war and the chase, and kept dogs. They were without any form of worship, but were circumcised, as were nearly all the natives south of the twenty-ninth parallel of latitude. They were very sensual, each man having as many wives as he chose. Gold and silver were esteemed by them as of little value, but for very small pieces of iron or copper they were willing to sell oxen or sheep. Their language was a dialect of that in use by all the people of Kaffraria, and their chief, like the petty rulers in the country to the north, was termed an Inkosi.

From this description it is evident that Luspace's clan was of mixed Bantu and Hottentot blood, the former, however, prevailing, and that in 1593 the condition of things along the Umtata was similar to that along the Fish river two centuries

later, when the incorporation of the Gonaquas in the Xosa tribe had recently taken place.

On the 3rd of April the travellers commenced their march. Luspance sold them two cows and two sheep, and went with them himself as a guide as far as the Umtata. A negro boy, one of whose legs had been broken in getting to land, was left behind with the friendly natives. On the afternoon of the next day they crossed the Umtata, which they believed to be the Infante, and then Luspance bade them farewell, after directing a guide whose name is given as Inhancosa—(evidently Nyana wenkosi, i.e. son of the chief)—to conduct them onward.

On the 5th they obtained eight cows in barter, on the 7th they passed a field of millet, of which they purchased some, and on the 9th they reached a little kraal that was in possession of a hundred head of horned cattle and a hundred and twenty sheep of the large-tailed breed. The chief presented calabashes of milk, and sold them four cows for pieces of copper worth as many pence. A little farther on they reached a kraal under a chief named Ubabu, who was a brother of their guide. He was a man of middling stature, not very black in colour, with an open cheerful countenance. He entertained the strangers with a dance, in which about sixty men took part, the women clapping their hands and singing in time. Though Ubabu had about two hundred head of large cattle and as many sheep, he would not part with any except at prices which the Portuguese regarded as extortionate, but he was very pleased to accept of the presents they made him.

Soon after leaving his kraal some natives were seen with beads of Indian manufacture hanging from their ears, which the journalist conjectured must have been brought down from the trading station at Delagoa Bay, though it is much more likely that they were obtained from the wreck of the *São João* or the *São Bento*. Progress was slow, often little more than a league in a day being covered, but on the 14th the caravan reached the Umzimvubu at the ford now known as the Etyeni, where the passage of the stream was safely made.

After crossing this river, the largest in Kaffraria, the tone of the journal changes. The travellers found themselves now in a more thickly populated country, and the inhabitants were blacker in colour. They had not proceeded far when a chief named Vibo, who was much more powerful than any they had seen before, and who is described as being very black and about eighty years of age, came to meet them. After that chiefs in possession of kraals of considerable size were found at intervals along their whole line of march, except when they were on the high plateau from which rises the Drakensberg. They had no difficulty in purchasing as many horned cattle, sheep, hens, gourds, and millet cakes, and as much millet and milk as they needed. For the millet cakes, probably on account of their being so different from European bread, they used the native name *isinkwa*, which the journalist wrote *sincoa*. The gleeful exclamation *Halala! Halala!* they mistook for a form of greeting, but they were correct in believing that the word *manga* (properly *isimanga*) referred to the sea, though literally it means a wonder.

They passed over the high ground behind the present mission station Palmerton, along by the Ingele mountain, which they called *Moxangala*, and on the 3rd of May saw the Drakensberg to the northward and north-eastward covered with snow. This part of the country, being too cold in the winter season to be pleasant for Bantu, they found uninhabited. Turning now towards the lowlands, on the 13th of May they crossed a beautiful river which they called the *Mutangalo*, the *Umzimkulu* of our day.

The present colony of Natal they found thickly peopled. By this time they were inured to travel, the weather was in all respects favourable, and they could usually obtain competent guides, so they made much longer stages than at first. It took them only sixteen days to go over the ground from the *Umzimkulu* to the *Tugela*—the *Uchugel* they termed it,—which stream they crossed on the 29th of May.

Continuing at this rapid rate, they reached *Delagoa Bay* on the 30th of June, having marched as they computed three

hundred leagues in eighty-eight days. From the Mpako to the Espirito Santo a straight line measures only one hundred and fifty leagues, but they thought the various turns in the footpaths had doubled that distance. They had nineteen head of cattle when they reached the bay. On the journey they had been compelled to abandon nine Europeans who were worn out with sickness and fatigue, and they lost ninety-five slaves, mostly by desertion. This wonderful success was due to its being the best time of the year for travelling, to their being so strong and so well armed that no natives dared to attack them, to their being provided with means to purchase food, and to their having slaves who could make themselves understood by the Bantu along the route.

At Delagoa Bay they found the trading vessel *Nossa Senhora da Salvação* nearly ready to return to Mozambique. She was not large enough to contain them all, but her mixed-breed Moslem sailors, who had their wives with them, consented for liberal payment to remain behind, and thus she was lightened of forty-five individuals. It was the custom of these people, instead of receiving wages, to be allowed to trade in millet, honey, and anything else except ivory or ambergris on their own account, and therefore they would have little difficulty in providing for themselves on shore. From them the chief captain purchased an ample supply of millet for food on the passage. Twenty-eight Portuguese soldiers and sailors resolved to travel overland to Sofala, but only two of this party reached their destination; the others perished on the way in conflicts brought on by their own misconduct. Eighty-eight Portuguese, including the two ladies, and sixty-four slaves embarked in the trading vessel, which sailed on the 22nd of July, and reached Mozambique in safety on the 6th of August.

In all the region traversed by the crews of these wrecked ships not a single tribe is mentioned of the same name as any now existing. The people were all of the Bantu race as far south as the Umzimvubu, spoke dialects of the same language, had the same customs, but were not grouped as at present. South of the Umzimvubu there was a mixture of Bantu and

Hottentot blood, but how far the former extended in this diluted form cannot be ascertained. Probably not far, as the country was very sparsely populated. It is noticeable also that the whole of the high plateau from which the Drakensberg rises was without inhabitants at least as far north as the present colony of Natal.

It would serve no useful purpose to give the names of the tribes about Delagoa Bay and farther northward, as placed on record by the Portuguese writers, for even if those names were accurate at the time, the communities that bore them have long since ceased to exist, and never did anything to merit a place in history. Along the coast south of Delagoa Bay only four tribes of importance are mentioned. The first was that of the Inyaka, occupying the island now known by that name and the territory between the Maputa river and the sea. Joining them on the south were the Makomata, under a chief called Viragune by the Portuguese, whose kraals were scattered over the country from the coast ninety miles inland. Then came the Makalapapa, who lived about the St. Lucia lagoon. South of them was a tribe termed the Vambe by the Portuguese, which was to a certainty the Abambo of Hlubi, Zizi, and other traditions, from whom Natal is still called Embo by the Bantu.

All the paramount chiefs of these tribes were termed kings by the Portuguese, and the territories in which they lived were described as kingdoms. In the same way the heads of kraals were designated nobles. Phraseology of this kind, so liable to lead readers into error, ended, however, with the so-called Vambe kingdom, as farther south there were no tribes of any importance, no chiefs with more than three or four kraals under their control, and to these a high-sounding title could not be given. The Pondo, Pandomisi, Tembu, and Xosa tribes of our day were either not yet in existence as separate communities, or were little insignificant clans too feeble to attract notice.

CHAPTER XIII.

APPEARANCE OF RIVALS IN THE EASTERN SEAS.

THE debt which the world owes to the Portuguese for weakening the Mohamedan power and thus preventing the subjugation of a larger portion of Eastern Europe than was actually overrun by the Turks should not be forgotten, but long before the close of the sixteenth century they had ceased to be participants in the great progressive movement of the Caucasian race. Upon a conquering nation rests an enormous responsibility: no smaller than that of benefiting the world at large. Was Portugal doing this in her eastern possessions to such an extent as to make her displacement there a matter deserving universal regret? Probably her own people would reply that she was, for every nation regards its own acts as better than those of others; but beyond her borders the answer unquestionably would be that she was not. Rapacity, cruelty, corruption, have all been laid to her charge at this period, and not without sufficient reason. But apart from these vices, her weakness under the Castilian kings was such that she was incapable of doing any good. When an individual is too infirm and decrepit to manage his affairs, a robust man takes his place, and so it is with States. The weak one may cry out that might is not right, but such a cry finds a very feeble echo. India was not held by the Portuguese under the only indefeasible tenure: that of making the best use of it; and thus it could be seized by a stronger power without Christian nations feeling that a wrong was being done.

Before recounting in brief the commencement of the Dutch

conquests, a glance may be given to the acts of other nations, and especially to those of our own countrymen, in the eastern seas at an earlier date.

The French were the first to follow the Portuguese round the Cape of Good Hope to India. As early as 1507 a corsair of that nation, named Mondragon, made his appearance in the Mozambique channel * with two armed vessels, and plundered a ship under command of Job Queimado. He also captured and robbed another Indiaman nearer home. On the 18th of January 1509 a fleet commanded by Duarte Pacheco fell in with him off Cape Finisterre, and after a warm engagement sank one of his ships and captured the other. Mondragon was taken a prisoner to Lisbon, where he found means of making his peace with the king, and he was then permitted to return to France.

Twenty years later three ships, fitted out by a merchant named Jean Ango, sailed from Dieppe for India. The accounts of this expedition are so conflicting that it is impossible to relate the occurrences attending it with absolute accuracy. It is certain, however, that one of the ships never reached her destination. Another was wrecked on the coast of Sumatra, where her crew were all murdered. The third reached Diu in July 1527. She had a crew of forty Frenchmen, but was commanded by a Portuguese named Estevão Dias, nicknamed Brigas, who had fled from his native country on account of misdeeds committed there, and had taken service with the strangers. The ruler of Diu regarded this ship with great hostility, and as he was unable to seize her openly, he practised deceit to get her crew within his power. Professing friendship, he gave Dias permission to trade in his territory, but took advantage of the first opportunity to arrest him and his crew. They were handed over as captives to the paramount Mohamedan ruler, and were obliged to embrace

* The particulars of this event cannot be ascertained, and it would even be doubtful whether Mondragon really rounded the Cape of Good Hope if it were not expressly stated in a summary of the directions issued by the king for his capture, that it took place "no canal de Moçambique."

his creed to preserve their lives. They were then taken into his service and remained in India.

Early in 1529 two ships commanded by Jean and Raoul Parmentier, fitted out partly by Jean Ango, partly by merchants of Rouen, sailed from Dieppe. In October of the same year they reached Sumatra, but on account of great loss of life from sickness, on the 22nd of January 1530 they turned homeward. As they avoided the Portuguese settlements, nothing was known at Goa of their proceedings except what was told by a sailor who was left behind at Madagascar and was afterwards found there. This expedition was almost as unsuccessful as the preceding one. On their return passage the ships were greatly damaged in violent storms, and they reached Europe with difficulty.

From that time until 1601 there is no trace of a French vessel having passed the Cape of Good Hope. In May of this year the *Corbin* and *Croissant*, two ships fitted out by Messrs. Laval and Vitré, Bretagne merchants, sailed from St. Malo. They reached the Maldives safely, but there the *Corbin* was lost in July 1602, and her commander was unable to return to France until ten years had gone by. The *Croissant* was lost on the Spanish coast on her homeward passage.

On the 1st of June 1604 a French East India Company was established on paper, but it did not get further. In 1615 it was reorganised, and in 1617 the first successful expedition to India under the French flag sailed from a port in Normandy. From that date onward ships of this nation were frequently seen in the eastern seas. But the French made no attempt to form a settlement in South Africa, and their only connection with this country was that towards the middle of the seventeenth century a vessel was sent occasionally from Rochelle to collect a cargo of sealskins and oil at the islands in and near the present Saldanha Bay.

The English were the next to appear in Indian waters. A few individuals of this nation may have served in Portuguese ships, and among the missionaries, especially of the Society of

Jesus, who went out to convert the heathen, it is not unlikely that there were several. One at least, Thomas Stephens by name, was rector of the Jesuit college at Salsette. A letter written by him from Goa in 1579, and printed in the second volume of Hakluyt's work, is the earliest account extant of an English voyager to that part of the world.* It contains no information of importance.

The famous sea captain Francis Drake, of Tavistock in Devon, sailed from Plymouth on the 13th of December 1577, with the intention of exploring the Pacific ocean. His fleet consisted of five vessels, carrying in all one hundred and sixty-four men. His own ship, named the *Pelican*, was of one hundred and twenty tons burden. The others were the *Elizabeth*, eighty tons, the *Marigold*, thirty tons, a pinnace of twelve tons, and a storeship of fifty tons burden. The last named was set on fire as soon as her cargo was transferred to the others, the pinnace was abandoned, the *Marigold* was lost in a storm, the *Elizabeth*, after reaching the Pacific, turned back through the straits of Magellan, and the *Pelican* alone continued the voyage. She was the first English ship that sailed round the world. Captain Drake reached England again on the 3rd of November 1580, and soon afterwards was made a knight by Queen Elizabeth on board his ship. The *Pelican* did not touch at any part of the South African

* I do not mention Sir John Mandeville in the text, because modern criticism has proved that what he states concerning India in his book *The Voyage and traualle of syr Iohn Maundeuille, knight, which treateth of the way toward Hierusalem, and of maruayles of Inde, with other Ilands and Countrys* was compiled from earlier foreign writers, though his work was regarded as genuine and trustworthy by Englishmen until recently. Nothing is known of him from contemporary records, and it is even regarded as possible that Mandeville was a pseudonym. In his book he states that he was born at St. Albans, and travelled in the east as far as China between the years 1322 and 1357. It is now believed that he really visited Palestine, and his account of that country is considered as partly based on personal observation, but the remainder of the volume is spurious. The original was written in French. See the *Encyclopedia Britannica*, article Mandeville. Of the numerous copies of the book, in many languages, in the library of the British Museum, the earliest was printed in 1480.

coast, but there is the following paragraph in the account of the voyage:—

“We ran hard aboard the Cape, finding the report of the Portuguese to be most false, who affirm that it is the most dangerous cape of the world, never without intolerable storms and present danger to travellers who come near the same. This cape is a most stately thing, and the fairest cape we saw in the whole circumference of the earth, and we passed by it on the 18th of June.”

In 1583 four English traders in precious stones, acting partly on their own account and partly as agents for merchants in London, made their way by the Tigris and the Persian gulf to Ormuz, where at that time people of various nationalities were engaged in commerce. John Newbery, the leader of the party, had been there before. The others were named Ralph Fitch, William Leades, and James Story. Shortly after their arrival at Ormuz they were arrested by the Portuguese authorities on the double charge of being heretics and spies of the prior Dom Antonio, who was a claimant to the throne of Portugal, and under these pretences they were sent prisoners to Goa. There they managed to clear themselves of the first of the charges, Story entered a convent, and the others, on finding bail not to leave the city, were set at liberty in December 1584, mainly through the instrumentality of the Jesuit father Stephens and Jan Huyghen van Linschoten, of whom more will be related in the following pages. Four months afterwards, being in fear of ill-treatment, they managed to make their escape from Goa. After a time they separated, and Fitch went on a tour through India, visiting many places before his return to England in 1591. An account of his travels is extant in Hakluyt's collection, but there is not much information in it, and it had no effect upon subsequent events.

Thomas Candish sailed from Plymouth on the 21st of July 1586, with three ships—the *Desire*, of one hundred and twenty tons, the *Content*, of sixty tons, and the *Hugh Gallant*, of forty tons—carrying in all one hundred and twenty-three souls.

After sailing round the globe, he arrived again in Plymouth on the 9th of September 1588, having passed the Cape of Good Hope on the 16th of May.

The first English ships that put into a harbour on the South African coast were the *Penelope*, *Merchant Royal*, and *Edward Bonaventure*, which sailed from Plymouth for India on the 10th of April 1591, under command of Admiral George Raymond. This fleet put into the Watering Place of Saldanha at the end of July. The crews, who were suffering from scurvy, were at once sent on shore, where they obtained fresh food by shooting wild fowl and gathering mussels and other shell-fish along the rocky beach. Some natives had been seen when the ships sailed in, but they appeared terrified, and at once moved inland. Admiral Raymond visited Robben Island, where he found seals and penguins in great numbers. One day some hunters caught a native, whom they treated kindly, making him many presents and endeavouring to show him by signs that they were in want of cattle. They then let him go, and eight days afterwards he returned with thirty or forty others, bringing forty oxen and as many sheep. Trade was at once commenced, the price of an ox being two knives, that of a sheep one knife. So many men had died of scurvy that it was considered advisable to send the *Merchant Royal* back to England weak handed. The *Penelope*, with one hundred and one men, and the *Edward Bonaventure*, with ninety-seven men, sailed for India on the 8th of September. On the 12th a gale was encountered, and that night those in the *Edward Bonaventure*, whereof was captain James Lancaster—who was afterwards famous as an advocate of Arctic exploration, and whose name was given by Bylot and Baffin to the sound which terminated their discoveries in 1616—saw a great sea break over the admiral's ship, which put out her lights. After that she was never seen or heard of again.

The appearance of these rivals in the Indian seas caused much concern in Spain and Portugal. There was as yet no apprehension of the loss of the sources of the spice trade, but it was regarded as probable that English ships would lie

in wait at Saint Helena for richly laden vessels homeward bound, so in 1593 the king directed the viceroy to instruct the captains not to touch at that island.

It was not by Englishmen, however, though they visited India at this early period, but by the Dutch, that the Portuguese power in the East was overthrown. That power was like a great bubble, but it required pricking to make it burst, and our countrymen did not often come in contact with it. Sir Francis Drake indeed, who was utterly fearless, went wherever he chose, and opened fire upon all who attempted to interfere with him, but his successors, whose object was profit in trade, were naturally more cautious. The Indies were large, and so they avoided the Portuguese fortresses, and did what business they could with native rulers and people.

The merchants of the Netherlands had been accustomed to obtain at Lisbon the supplies of Indian products which they required for home consumption and for the large European trade which they carried on, but after 1580, when Portugal came under the dominion of Philippe II of Spain, they were shut out of that market. They then determined to open up direct communication with the East, and for that purpose made several gallant but fruitless efforts to find a passage along the northern shores of Europe and Asia. When the first of these had failed, and while the result of the second was still unknown, some merchants of Amsterdam fitted out a fleet of four vessels, which in the year 1595 sailed to India by way of the Cape of Good Hope. Before this date, however, a few Netherlands had visited the eastern seas in the Portuguese service, and among them was one in particular whose writings had great influence at that period and for more than half a century afterwards.

Jan Huyghen van Linschoten was born at Haarlem, in the province of Holland. He received a good general education, but from an early age he gave himself up with ardour to the special study of geography and history, and eagerly read such books of travel as were within his reach. In 1579 he

obtained permission from his parents, who were then residing at Enkhuizen, to proceed to Seville, where his two elder brothers were pushing their fortunes. He was at Seville when the cardinal king Henrique of Portugal died, leaving the succession to the throne in dispute. The duke of Alva with a strong Spanish army won it for his master, and shortly afterwards Linschoten removed to Lisbon, where he was a clerk in a merchant's office when Philippe made his triumphal entry and when Alva died.

Two years later he entered the service of a Dominican friar, by name Vicente da Fonseca, who had been appointed by Philippe primate of India, the see of Goa having been raised to an archbishopric in 1557. In April 1583, with his employer he sailed from Lisbon, and after touching at Mozambique—where he remained from the 5th to the 20th of August, diligently seeking information on that part of the world—he arrived at Goa in September of the same year. He remained in India until January 1589. When returning to Europe in the ship *Santa Cruz* from Cochin, he passed through a quantity of wreckage from the ill-fated *São Thomé*, which had sailed from the same port five days before he left, and he visited several islands in the Atlantic, at one of which—Terceira—he was detained a long time. He reached Lisbon again in January 1592, and eight months later rejoined his family at Enkhuizen, after an absence of nearly thirteen years. From this date his name is inseparably connected with those of the gallant spirits who braved the perils of the polar seas in the effort to find a north-eastern passage to China.

Early in 1595 the first of Linschoten's books was published, in which an account is given of the sailing directions followed by the Portuguese in their navigation of the eastern waters, drawn from the treatises of their most experienced pilots. This work shows the highest knowledge of navigation that Europeans had then acquired. They had still no better instrument for determining latitudes than the astrolabe and the cross staff, and no means whatever for ascer-

taining longitudes. The vicinity of the Cape of Good Hope was known by the appearance of seabirds called Cape pigeons and the great drifting plants that are yet to be seen any day on the shores of the Cape peninsula. The different kinds of ground that adhered to the tallow of the sounding leads to some extent indicated the position, as did also the variation of the magnetic needle, but whether a ship was fifty or a hundred miles from any given point could not be ascertained by either of these means. When close to the shore, however, the position was known by the appearance of the land, the form of the hills and mountains, and the patches of sand and thicket, all of which had been carefully delineated and laid down in the sailing directions.

Linschoten's first book was followed in 1596 by a description of the Indies, and by several geographical treatises drawn from Portuguese sources, all profusely illustrated with maps and plates. Of Mozambique an ample account was given from personal observation and inquiry. Dom Pedro de Castro had just been succeeded as captain by Nuno Velho Pereira, who informed the archbishop that in his three years term of office he would realise a fortune of about nine tons of gold, or £75,000 sterling, derived chiefly from the trade in the precious metal carried on at Sofala and in the territory of the Monomotapa. Fort São Sebastião had then no other garrison than the servants and attendants of the captain, in addition to whom there were only forty or at most fifty Portuguese and half-breed male residents on the island capable of assisting in its defence. There were three or four hundred huts occupied by negroes, some of whom were professed Christians, others Mohamedans, and still others heathens. The exports to India were gold, ivory, ambergris, ebony, and slaves. African slaves, being much stronger in body than the natives of Hindostan, were used to perform the hardest and coarsest work in the eastern possessions of Portugal, and—though Linschoten does not state this—they were employed in considerable numbers in the trading ships to relieve the European seamen from the heavy labour of

pumping, hauling, stowing and unstowing cargo, cleansing, and so forth. These slaves were chiefly procured from the lands to the northward, and very few, if any of them, were natives of the country south of the Zambesi.

It serves to show how carefully and minutely Linschoten elicited information at Mozambique, that he mentions a harbour on the coast which is not named by any of the Portuguese writers of the time except Dos Santos, whose book was not then published, and who only refers to it incidentally, though it is now known to be the best port between Inhambane and the Zambesi. This is Beira, as at present termed, then known to the sailors of the pangayos that traded to the southward as Porto Bango. Linschoten gives its latitude as $19\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$, half a degree north of Sofala. He mentions also Delagoa Bay, that is the present Algoa Bay, and gives its latitude as $33\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$. He describes the monsoons of the Indian ocean, and states that ships from Portugal availed themselves of these periodical winds by waiting at Mozambique until the 1st of August, and never leaving after the middle of September, thus securing a safe and easy passage to the coast of Hindostan.

He frequently refers to the gold of Sofala and the country of the Monomotapa, of which he had heard just such reports as Vasco da Gama had eagerly listened to eighty-six years before. Yet he did not magnify the importance of these rumours as the Portuguese had done, though it was mainly from his writings that his countrymen became possessed of that spirit of cupidity which induced them a few years later to make strenuous efforts to become masters of South-Eastern Africa.

Linschoten's treatises were collected and published in a single large volume, and the work was at once received as a text-book, a position which its merits entitled it to occupy. The most defective portion of the whole is that referring to South Africa: and for this reason, that it was then impossible to get any correct information about the interior of the continent below the Zambesi west of the part frequented by the

Portuguese. Linschoten himself saw no more of it than a fleeting glimpse of False Cape afforded on his outward passage, and his description was of necessity based upon the faulty maps of the geographers of his time, so that it was full of errors. But his account of India and of the way to reach its several ports was so correct that it could serve the purpose of a guide-book, and his treatise on the mode of navigation by the Portuguese was thus used by the commander of the first Dutch fleet that appeared in the eastern seas.

The four vessels which left Texel on the 2nd of April 1595 were under the general direction of an officer named Cornelis Houtman. In the afternoon of the 2nd of August the Cape of Good Hope was seen, and next day, after passing Agulhas, the fleet kept close to the land, the little *Duifke* sailing in front and looking for a harbour. On the 4th the bay called by the Portuguese Agoada de São Bras was discovered, and as the *Duifke* found good holding ground in nine or ten fathoms of water, the *Mauritius*, *Hollandia*, and *Amsterdam* entered and dropped their anchors.

Here the fleet remained until the 11th, when sail was again set for the East. During the interval a supply of fresh water was taken in, and some oxen and sheep were purchased from the natives for knives, old tools, and pieces of iron. The Europeans were surprised to find the sheep covered with hair instead of wool, and with enormous tails of pure fat. No women or habitations were seen. The appearance of the Hottentots, their clothing, their assagais, their method of making a fire by twirling a piece of wood rapidly round in the socket of another piece, their filthiness in eating, and the clicking of their language, are all correctly described; but it was surmised that they were cannibals, because they were observed to eat the half-raw intestines of animals, and a fable commonly believed in Europe was repeated concerning their mutilation in a peculiar manner of the bodies of conquered enemies. The intercourse with the few natives seen was friendly, though at times each suspected the other of evil intentions.

A chart of the inlet was made,* from which it is seen to be the one now called Mossel Bay. A little island in it was covered with seals and penguins, some of each of which were killed and eaten. The variation of the compass was observed to be so trifling that the needle might be said to point to the north.

From the Watering Place of São Bras Houtman continued his voyage to India, but it is not necessary to relate occurrences there. After his return to Europe several companies were formed in different towns of the Netherlands, with the object of trading to the East and wresting from the Portuguese that wealth which they were then too feeble to guard.

In the *Leeuw*, one of the ships sent out in 1598, and which put into the Watering Place of Saldanha for refreshment, the famous English seaman John Davis was chief pilot. He wrote an account of the voyage, in which he states that the Hottentots in Table Valley fell by surprise upon the men who were ashore bartering cattle, and killed thirteen of them. In his narrative Davis says that at Cape Agulhas the magnetic needle was without variation, but in his sailing directions, written after another voyage to India, he says: "At False Cape there is no variation that I can find by observing south from it. The variation of Cape Agulhas is thirty minutes from north to west. And at the Cape of Good Hope the compass is varied from north to east five and twenty minutes."

No fresh discoveries on the African coast were made by any of the fleets sent out at this time, but to some of the bays new names were given.

In December 1599 four ships fitted out by an association at Amsterdam calling itself the New Brabant Company sailed

* It is attached to the original journals, now in the archives of the Netherlands. I made a copy of it on tracing linen for the Cape government, as it differs considerably from the chart in the printed condensed journal of the voyage. In other respects also the compilation of the printed journal has been very carelessly executed.

from Texel for the Indies, under command of Pieter Both. Two of them returned early in 1601, leaving the *Vereenigde Landen* and the *Hof van Holland* under charge of Paulus van Caerden to follow as soon as they could obtain cargoes. On the 8th of July 1601 Van Caerden put into the Watering Place of São Bras on the South African coast, for the purpose of repairing one of his ships which was in a leaky condition. The commander, with twenty soldiers, went a short distance inland to endeavour to find people from whom he could obtain some cattle, but though he came across a party of eight natives he did not succeed in getting any oxen or sheep. A supply of fresh water was taken in, but no refreshment except mussels could be procured, on account of which Van Caerden gave the inlet the name Mossel Bay, which it has ever since retained.

On the 14th, the *Hof van Holland* having been repaired, the two ships sailed, but two days later, as they were making no progress against a head wind, they put into another bay. Here natives were found, from whom the voyagers obtained for pieces of iron as many horned cattle and sheep as they could consume fresh or had salt to preserve. For this reason the commander gave it the name Flesh Bay.

On the 21st sail was set, but the *Hof van Holland* being found leaky again, on the 23rd another bay was entered, where her damages were repaired. On account of a westerly gale the ships were detained here until the 30th, when they sailed, but finding the wind contrary outside, they returned to anchor. No natives were seen, but the commander visited a river near by, where he encountered a party from whom he obtained five sheep in exchange for bits of iron. In the river were numerous hippopotami. Abundance of fine fish having been secured here, the commander gave the inlet the name Fish Bay.

On the 2nd of August the ships sailed, and on the 27th passed the Cape of Good Hope, to the great joy of all on

board, who had begun to fear that they would be obliged to seek a port on the eastern side to winter in.

On the 5th of May 1601 a fleet of three vessels, named the *Ram*, the *Schaap*, and the *Lam*, sailed for the Indies from Vere in Zeeland, under command of Joris van Spilbergen. On the 15th of November the fleet put into St. Helena Bay, where no inhabitants were seen, though many fires were observed inland. The only refreshment procurable was fish, which were caught in great quantities.

On the 20th Spilbergen sailed from St. Helena Bay, and beating against a head wind, on the evening of the 28th he anchored off an island, to which he gave the name Elizabeth. Four years later Sir Edward Michelburne termed it Cony Island, which name, under the Dutch form of Dassen, it still bears. Seals in great numbers, sea-birds of different kinds, and conies were found. At this place he remained only twenty-four hours. On the 2nd of December he cast anchor close to another island, which he named Cornelia. It was the Robben island of the present day. Here were found seals and penguins in great numbers, but no conies. The next day at noon Spilbergen reached the Watering Place of Saldanha, the anchorage in front of Table Mountain, and gave it the name Table Bay, which it still bears.

The sick were conveyed to land, where a hospital was established. A few natives were met, to whom presents of beads were made, and who were understood to make signs that they would bring cattle for sale, but they went away and did not return. Abundance of fish was obtained with a seine at the mouth of a stream which Spilbergen named the Jacqueline, now Salt River; but, as meat was wanted, the smallest of the vessels was sent to Elizabeth Island, where a great number of penguins and conies were killed and salted in. The fleet remained in Table Bay until the 23rd of December. When passing Cornelia Island, a couple of conies were set on shore, and seven or eight sheep, which had been left there by some previous voyagers, were shot, and their carcasses taken on board. Off the Cape of Good

Hope the two French ships of which mention has been made were seen.

Spilbergen kept along the coast, noticing the formation of the land and the numerous streams falling into the sea, but was sorely hindered in his progress by the Agulhas current, which he found setting so strong to the south-westward that at times he could make no way against it even with the breeze in his favour. On the 17th of January 1602, owing to this cause, he stood off from the coast, and did not see it again.

The fleets sent out by the different small companies which had been formed in the chief towns of the Free Netherlands gained surprising successes over the Portuguese in India, but as they did not work in concert no permanent conquests could be made. For this reason, as well as to prevent rivalry and to conduct the Indian trade in a manner the most beneficial to the people of the whole republic, the states-general resolved to unite all the small trading associations in one great company with many privileges and large powers. The charter, or terms upon which the Company came into existence, was dated at the Hague on the 20th of March 1602, and contained forty-six clauses, the principal of which were as follow:—

All of the inhabitants of the United Netherlands had the right given to them to subscribe to the capital in as small or as large sums as they might choose, with this proviso, that if more money should be tendered than was needed, those applying for shares of over two thousand five hundred pounds sterling should receive less, so that the applicants for smaller shares might have allotted to them the full amounts asked for.

The chambers, or offices for the transaction of business, were to participate in the following proportion: that of Amsterdam one-half, that of Middelburg in Zeeland one quarter, those of Delft and Rotterdam, otherwise called of the Maas, together one-eighth, and those of Hoorn and Enkhuizen, otherwise called those of the North Quarter or sometimes those of

North Holland and West Friesland, together the remaining eighth.

The general directory was to consist of seventeen persons, eight of whom were to represent the chamber of Amsterdam, four that of Middelburg, two those of the Maas, two those of the North Quarter, and the seventeenth was to be chosen alternately by all of these except the chamber of Amsterdam. The place of meeting of the general directory was fixed at Amsterdam for six successive years, then at Middelburg for two years, then at Amsterdam again for six years, and so on.

The directors of each chamber were named in the charter, being the individuals who were the directors of the companies previously established in those towns, and it was provided that no others should be appointed until these should be reduced by death or resignation: in the chamber of Amsterdam to twenty persons, in that of Zeeland to twelve, and in those of Delft, Rotterdam, Hoorn, and Enkhuizen each to seven. After that, whenever a vacancy should occur, the remaining directors were to nominate three qualified individuals, of whom the states of the province in which the chamber was situated were to select one.

To qualify an individual to be a director in the chambers of the North Quarter it was necessary to own shares to the value of £250 sterling, and double that amount to be a director in any of the other chambers. The directors were to be bound by oath to be faithful in the administration of the duties entrusted to them, and not to favour a majority of the shareholders at the expense of a minority. Directors were prohibited from selling anything whatever to the Company without previously obtaining the sanction of the states provincial or the authorities of the city in which the chamber that they represented was situated.

All inhabitants of the United Provinces other than this Company were prohibited from trading beyond the Straits of Magellan, or to the eastward of the Cape of Good Hope, during the period of twenty-one years, for which the charter was

granted, under penalty of forfeiture of ship and cargo. Within these limits the East India Company was empowered to enter into treaties and make contracts in the name of the states-general, to build fortresses, to appoint governors, military commanders, judges, and other necessary officers, who were all, however, to take oaths of fidelity to the states-general or high authorities of the Netherlands, who were not to be prevented from making complaints to the states-general, and whose appointments were to be reported to the states-general for confirmation.

For these privileges the Company was to pay £12,500 sterling, which amount the states-general subscribed towards the capital, for the profit and at the risk of the general government of the provinces. The capital was nominally furnished in the following proportions: Amsterdam one-half, Zeeland one-fourth, the Maas one-eighth, and the North Quarter one-eighth; but in reality it was contributed as under:—

		£	s.	d.
Amsterdam		307,202	10	0
Zeeland		106,304	10	0
The Maas {	Delft	38,880	3	4
	Rotterdam	14,546	16	8
The North Quarter {	Hoorn	22,369	3	4
	Enkhuizen	47,380	3	4
Total working capital		536,683	6	8
The share of the states-general		12,500	0	0
Total nominal capital		549,183	6	8

The capital was divided into shares of £250 sterling each. The shares, often sub-divided into fractions, were negotiable like any other property, and rose or fell in value according to the position of the Company at any time.

The advantage which the State derived from the establishment of this great association was apparent. The sums received in payment of import dues would have been contributed to an equal extent by individual traders. The

amounts paid for the renewal of the charter—in 1647 the Company paid £133,333 6s. 8d. for its renewal for twenty-five years, and still larger sums were paid subsequently—might have been derived from trading licenses. The Company frequently aided the Republic with loans of large amount when the State was in temporary need, but loans could then have been raised in the modern method whenever necessary. Apart from these services, however, there was one supreme advantage gained by the creation of the East India Company which could not have been obtained from individual traders. A powerful navy was called into existence, great armed fleets working in unison and subject to the same control were always ready to assist the State. What must otherwise have been an element of weakness, a vast number of merchant ships scattered over the ocean and ready to fall a prey to an enemy's cruisers, was turned into a bulwark of strength.

In course of time several modifications took place in the constitution of the Company, and the different provinces as well as various cities were granted the privilege of having representatives in one or other of the chambers. Thus the provinces Gelderland, Utrecht, and Friesland, and the cities Dordrecht, Haarlem, Leiden, and Gouda had each a representative in the chamber of Amsterdam; Groningen had a representative in the chamber of Zeeland; Overijssel one in the chamber of Delft, &c. The object of this was to make the Company represent the whole Republic.

Notwithstanding such regulations, however, the city of Amsterdam soon came to exercise an immoderate influence in the direction. In 1672 it was estimated that shares equal to three-fourths of the whole capital were owned there, and of the twenty-five directors of the local chamber, eighteen were chosen by the burgomasters of the city. Fortunately, the charter secured to the other chambers a stated proportion of patronage and trade.

Such was the constitution of the Company which set itself the task of destroying the Portuguese power in the East and securing for itself the lucrative spice trade. It had

no difficulty in obtaining as many men as were needed, for the German states—not then as now united in one great empire—formed an almost inexhaustible reservoir to draw soldiers from, and the Dutch fisheries, together with Norway, Sweden, and Denmark, furnished an adequate supply of excellent seamen. It sent out strong and well armed fleets, capable of meeting any force the enemy had to oppose them, and of driving him from the open seas. The first of these fleets consisted of three large ships, commanded by Sebald de Weert, which sailed on the 31st of March 1602, and it was followed on the 17th of June of the same year by eleven large ships and a yacht, under command of Wybrand van Waerwyk.

The Company soon wrested from the Portuguese their choicest possessions in the East, besides acquiring other valuable territory from native owners. Its dividends to the shareholders were enormous, owing largely to the spoil captured by its fleets. In one year they rose to seventy-five per cent of the paid-up capital, and for upwards of a century they averaged above twenty per cent.

CHAPTER XIV.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE DUTCH AND ENGLISH.

THOUGH the Dutch were soon in almost undisputed possession of the valuable Spice islands, they were never able to eject the Portuguese from the comparatively worthless coast of South-Eastern Africa. That coast would only have been an encumbrance to them, if they had secured it, for its commerce was never worth much more than the cost of its maintenance until the highlands of the interior were occupied by Europeans, and the terrible mortality caused by its malaria would have been a serious misfortune to them. It was out of their ocean highway too, for they steered across south of Madagascar, instead of keeping along the African shore. But they were drawn on by rumours of the gold which was to be had, and so they resolved to make themselves masters of Mozambique, and with that island of all the Portuguese possessions subordinate to it. In Lisbon their intentions were suspected, and in January 1601 the king issued instructions that Dom Alvaro d'Abranches, Nuno da Cunha's successor as captain of Mozambique, was on no account to absent himself from the island, as it might at any time be attacked by either the Turks or the Dutch.

On the 18th of December 1603 Steven van der Hagen left Holland for India with a strong armed fleet, consisting of the *Vereenigde Provinciën*, *Amsterdam*, *Dordrecht*, *Hoorn*, and *West Friesland*, each of three hundred and fifty tons burden, the *Gelderland* and *Zeelandia*, each of two hundred and fifty tons, the *Hof van Holland*, of one hundred and eighty tons, the *Delft* and *Enkhuizen*, each of one hundred and fifty tons, the

Medenblik, of one hundred and twenty-five tons, and a despatch boat named the *Duifken*, of thirty tons burden. In those days such a fleet was regarded as, and actually was, a very formidable force, for though there were no ships in it of the size of the great galleons of Spain and Portugal, each one was much less unwieldy, and had its artillery better placed. There were twelve hundred men on board, and the equipment cost no less than £184,947 6s. 8d.

Van der Hagen arrived before Mozambique on the 17th of June 1604. Fort São Sebastião had not at the time its ordinary garrison of one hundred soldiers, owing to a disaster that had recently occurred. A great horde of barbarians, called the Cabires by the Portuguese, had entered the territory of the Monomotapa, and were laying it waste, so the captain Lourenço de Brito, by the king's order, went to the assistance of the Kalanga chief, but was defeated and lost ten or twelve Portuguese and part of his stores. Sebastião de Macedo was then in command at Mozambique. He sent a vessel with fifty soldiers to De Brito's assistance, but on the passage she was lost with all on board. None had yet arrived to replace them, but the resident inhabitants of the island had retired to the fort with everything of value that they could remove, so Van der Hagen considered it too strong to be attacked and therefore proceeded to blockade it. There was a carrack at anchor, waiting for some others from Lisbon to sail in company to Goa. The boats of the Dutch fleet cut her out, in spite of the heavy fire of the fort upon them. She had on board a quantity of ivory collected on the East African coast, but nothing else of much value.

On the 30th of June a small vessel from one of the factories, laden with rice and ivory, came running up to the island, and was too near to escape when she discovered her danger. She was turned into a tender, and named the *Mozambique*. Then, for five weeks, the blockade continued, without any noteworthy incident. On the 5th of August five pangayos arrived, laden with rice and millet, and were of course seized. Three days later Van der Hagen landed on

the island with one hundred and fifty men, but found no sign of hunger, and saw that the prospect of the surrender of the fort was remote. He did no other damage than setting fire to a single house, and as night drew on he returned on board.

He was now anxious to proceed to India, so on the 12th of August he set fire to the captured carrack, and sailed, leaving the *Delft*, *Enkhuizen*, and *Duisken*, to wait for the ships expected from Lisbon. These vessels rejoined him, but without having made any prizes, before he attacked the Portuguese at Amboina and Tidor, and got possession of the Spice islands. In this manner the first siege of Mozambique was conducted, and failed.

The next attempt was in 1607. On the 29th of March of that year a Dutch fleet of eight large ships—the *Banda*, *Bantam*, *Ceylon*, *Walcheren*, *Ter Veere*, *Zierikzee*, *China*, and *Patane*,—carrying one thousand and sixty men, commanded by Paulus van Caerden, appeared before the island. The Portuguese historian of this event represents that the fortress was at the time badly in want of repair, that it was insufficiently provided with cannon, and that there were no artillerymen nor indeed regular soldiers of any branch of the service in it, its defence being undertaken by seventy male inhabitants of the town, who were the only persons on the island capable of bearing arms. But this statement does not agree either with the Dutch narrative or with the account given by Dos Santos, from which it appears that there were between soldiers and residents of the island one hundred and forty-five men in the fortress. It was commanded by an officer—Dom Estevão d'Ataide by name—who deserves a place among the bravest of his countrymen. He divided his force into four companies, to each of which he gave a bastion in charge. To one, under Martim Gomes de Carvalho, was committed the defence of the bastion São João, another, under Antonio Monteiro Corte Real, had a similar charge in the bastion Santo Antonio, the bastion Nossa Senhora was confided to the care of André de Alpoim de Brito, while the

bastion São Gabriel, which was the one most exposed to assault on the land side and where the stoutest resistance would have to be made, was entrusted to the company under Diogo de Carvalho. The people of the town hastily took shelter within the fortress, carrying their most valuable effects with them.

Van Caerden, in the *Banda*, led the way right under the guns of São Sebastião to the anchorage, where the Sofala packet and two carracks were lying. A heavy fire was opened on both sides, but, though the ships were slightly damaged, as the ramparts were of great height and the Portuguese guns could not be depressed to command the Dutch position thoroughly, no one except the master of the *Ceylon* was wounded. Two of the vessels at anchor were partly burned, but all were made prizes, after their crews had escaped to the shore.

On the 1st of April Van Caerden landed with seven hundred men and seven heavy guns, several of them twenty-eight-pounders, in order to lay siege to Fort São Sebastião. The Portuguese set fire to the town, in order to prevent their enemy from getting possession of spoil, though in this object they were unsuccessful, as a heavy fall of rain extinguished the flames before much damage was done. The Dutch commander took possession of the abandoned buildings without opposition, and made the Dominican convent his headquarters, lodging his people in the best houses. He commenced at once making trenches in which the fortress could be approached by men under shelter from its fire, and on the 6th his first battery was completed. The blacks, excepting the able-bodied, being considered an encumbrance by both combatants, D'Ataide expelled those who were in the fort, and Van Caerden caused all who were within his reach to be transported to the mainland.

From the batteries, which were mere earthen mounds with level surfaces, protected on the exposed sides with boxes, casks, and bags filled with soil, a heavy fire was opened, by which the parapet of the bastion Santo Antonio was broken

down, but it was repaired at night by the defenders, the women and others incapable of bearing arms giving assistance in this labour. The musketeers on the walls, in return, caused some loss to their opponents by shooting any who exposed themselves. The Portuguese historian makes special mention of one Dutch officer in a suit of white armour, who went about recklessly in full view, encouraging his men, and apparently regardless of danger, until he was killed by a musket ball.

The trenches were at length within thirty paces of the bastion São Gabriel, and a battery was constructed there, which could not be injured by the cannon on the fortress owing to their great elevation, while from it the walls could be battered with twenty-eight pound shot as long as the artillerymen took care not to show themselves to the musketeers on the ramparts. The Dutch commander then proposed a parley, and D'Ataide having consented, he demanded the surrender of the fortress. He stated that the Portuguese could expect no assistance from either Europe or India, as the mother country was exhausted and the viceroy Dom Martim Affonso de Castro had been defeated in a naval engagement, besides which nearly all the strongholds of the East were lost to them. It would therefore be better to capitulate while it could be done in safety than to expose the lives of the garrison to the fury of men who would carry the place by storm. Further, even if the walls proved too massive for cannon, hunger must soon reduce the fortress, as there could not be more than three months' provisions in it. The Portuguese replied with taunts and bravado, and defied the besiegers to do their worst. They would have no other intercourse with rebels, they said, than that of arms.

During the night of the 17th some of the garrison made a sortie for the purpose of destroying a drawbridge, which they effected, and then retired, after having killed two men according to their own account, though only having wounded one according to the Dutch statement. A trench was now made close up to the wall of the bastion São Gabriel, and

was covered with movable shields of timber of such thickness that they could not be destroyed by anything thrown upon them from the ramparts. During the night of the 29th, however, the garrison made a second sortie, in which they killed five Hollanders and wounded many more, and on the following day they succeeded in destroying the wooden shields by fire.

In the meantime fever and dysentery had attacked Van Caerden's people, and the prospect was becoming gloomy in the extreme. The fire from the batteries and ships had not damaged the walls of the fortress below the parapet, and sickness was increasing so fast that the Dutch commander could not wait for famine to give him the prize. He therefore resolved to raise the siege, and on the 6th of May he removed his cannon.

War between nations of different creeds in those days was carried on in a merciless manner. On the 7th of May Van Caerden wrote to Captain D'Ataide that he intended to burn and destroy all the churches, convents, houses, and palm groves on the island and the buildings and plantations on the mainland, unless they were ransomed; but offered to make terms if messengers were sent to him with that object. A truce was entered into for the purpose of correspondence, and six Hollanders dressed in Spanish costume went with a letter to the foot of the wall, where it was fastened to a string and drawn up. D'Ataide declined the proposal, however, and replied that he had no instructions from his superiors, nor intention of his own, except to do all that was possible with his weapons. He believed that if he ransomed the town on this occasion, he would only expose it to similar treatment every time a strong Dutch fleet should pass that way.

Van Caerden then burned all the boats, canoes, and houses, cut down all the cocoa-nut trees, sent a party of men to the mainland, who destroyed everything of value that they could reach there, and finally, just before embarking, he set fire to the Dominican convent and the church of

São Gabriel. What was more to be deplored, adds the Portuguese historian Barbuda, "the perfidious heretics burned with abominable fury all the images that were in the churches, after which they treated them with a thousand barbarous indignities." The walls of the great church and of some other buildings were too massive to be destroyed by the flames, but everything else was utterly ruined.

On the morning of the 16th of May, before daylight, the Dutch fleet set sail. As the ships were passing Fort São Sebastião every gun that could be got to bear was brought into use on both sides, when the *Zierikzee* had her tiller shot away, and ran aground. Her crew and the most valuable effects on board were rescued, however, by the boats of the rest of the fleet, though many men were wounded by the fire from the fort. The wreck was given to the flames.

In the second attempt to get possession of Mozambique the Dutch lost forty men, either killed by the enemy or carried off by fever, and they took many sick and wounded away. The Portuguese asserted that they had only thirteen men killed during the siege, and they magnified their slain opponents to over three hundred.

After Van Caerden sailed the Portuguese set about repairing the damage that had been done. In this they were assisted by the crews of three ships, under command of the newly appointed viceroy Dom Jeronymo Coutinho, that called on their way from Lisbon to Goa. The batteries were removed, the trenches were levelled, the walls of the ruined Dominican convent were broken down, and the fortress was repaired and provided with a good supply of food and munitions of war. Its garrison also was strengthened with one hundred soldiers landed from the ships. The inhabitants of the town returned to the ruins of their former habitations, and endeavoured to make new homes for themselves. These efforts to retrieve their disasters had hardly been made when the island was attacked by another and more formidable fleet.

It consisted of the ships *Geunieerde Provintien*, *Hollandia*, *Amsterdam*, *Rode Leeuw met Pylen*, *Middelburg*, *Zeelandia*,

Delft, Rotterdam, Hoorn, Arend, Paauw, Valk, and Griffioen, carrying in all between eighteen and nineteen hundred men, and was under the command of Pieter Willemszoon Verhoeff, an officer who had greatly distinguished himself after Admiral Heemskerk's death in the famous battle in Gibraltar Bay. Verhoeff left the Netherlands on the 22nd of December 1607, and after a long stay at the island of St. Helena where he waited for the westerly winds to take him past the Cape of Good Hope, on the 28th of July 1608 arrived at Mozambique. He was under the impression that Van Caerden had certainly obtained possession of the fortress, and his object was to lie in wait for Portuguese ships in the Channel; but he was undeceived when his signals were answered with cannon balls and a flag of defiance was hoisted over the ramparts.

In the port were lying four coasting vessels and a carrack with a valuable cargo on board, ready to sail for Goa. In endeavouring to escape, the carrack ran aground under the guns of the fort, where the Dutch got possession of her, and made thirty-four of the crew prisoners. These were removed, but before much of the cargo could be got out the Portuguese from the fortress made a gallant dash, retook the carrack, and burned her to the water's edge. Two of the coasters were made prizes, the other two were in a position where they could not be attacked.

Within a few hours of his arrival Verhoeff landed a strong force, and formed a camp on the site of the destroyed Dominican convent. Next morning he commenced making trenches towards the fortress, by digging ditches and filling bags with earth, of which banks were then made. The Portuguese of the town had retired within the fortress in such haste that they were unable to remove any of their effects, and the blacks, as during the preceding siege, were now sent over to the mainland to be out of the way. Some of the ships were directed to cruise off the port, the others were anchored out of cannon range. A regular siege of the fortress was commenced.

In the mode of attack this siege differed little from that by Van Caerden, as trenches and batteries were made in the same manner and almost in the same places. But there were some incidents connected with it that deserve to be mentioned. At its commencement an accident occurred in the fortress, which nearly had disastrous consequences. A soldier, through carelessness, let a lighted fuse fall in a quantity of gunpowder, and by the explosion that resulted several men were killed and a fire was kindled which for a short time threatened the destruction of the storehouses, but which was extinguished before much harm was done.

On the second day after the batteries were in full working order the wall of the fortress between the bastions Santo Antonio and São Gabriel was partly broken down, and, according to the Portuguese account, a breach was opened through which a storming party might have entered. "If," says the historian Barbuda, "they had been Portuguese, no doubt they would have stormed; but as the Dutch are nothing more than good artillerymen, and beyond this are of no account except to be burned as desperate heretics, they had not courage to rush through the ruin of the wall." That this was said of men who had fought under Heemskerk leads one to suspect that probably the breach was not of great size, and the more so as the garrison was able to repair it during the following night. It is not mentioned in the Dutch account, in which the bravery of their opponents is fully recognised.

On the 4th of August Verhoeff sent a trumpeter with a letter demanding the surrender of the fortress. D'Ataide would not even write a reply. He said that as he had compelled Van Caerden to abandon the siege he hoped to be able to do the same with his present opponent. The captain of the bastion São Gabriel, however, wrote that the castle had been confided by the king to the commandant, who was not the kind of cat to be taken without gloves. Verhoeff believed that the garrison was ill supplied with food, so his trumpeter was well entertained, and on several occa-

sions goats and pigs were driven out of the gateway in a spirit of bravado.

Sorties were frequently made by the besieged, who had the advantage of being able to observe from the ramparts the movements of the Dutch. In one of these a soldier named Moraria distinguished himself by attacking singly with his lance three pikemen in armour at a distance from their batteries, killing two of them, and wounding the other.

D'Ataide was made acquainted with his enemy's plans by a French deserter, who claimed his protection on the ground of being of the same religion. Four others subsequently deserted from the Dutch camp, and were received in the fortress on the same plea. Verhoeff demanded that they should be surrendered to him, and threatened that if they were not given up he would put to death the thirty-four prisoners he had taken in the carrack. D'Ataide replied that if the prisoners were thirty-four thousand he would not betray men who were Catholics and who had claimed his protection, but if the Portuguese captives were murdered their blood would certainly be avenged. Verhoeff relates in his journal that the whole of the prisoners were then brought out in sight of the garrison and shot, regarding the act in the spirit of the time as rather creditable than otherwise; but the version of the Portuguese historian may be correct, in which it is stated that six men with their hands bound were shot in sight of their countrymen, and that the others, though threatened, were spared.

Until the 18th of August the siege was continued. Twelve hundred and fifty cannon balls had been fired against the fortress, without effect as far as its reduction was concerned. Thirty of Verhoeff's men had been killed and eighty were lying wounded. He therefore abandoned the effort, and embarked his force, after destroying what remained of the town.

On the 21st a great galleon approached the island so close that the ships in the harbour could be counted from her deck, but put about the moment the Dutch flag was distinguished. Verhoeff sent the ships *Arend*, *Grifioen*, and

Valk in pursuit, and she was soon overtaken. According to the Dutch account she made hardly any resistance, but in a letter to the king from her captain, Francisco de Sodre Pereira, which is still preserved, he claims to have made a gallant stand for the honour of his flag. The galleon was poorly armed, but he says that he fought till his ammunition was all expended, and even then would not consent to surrender, though the ship was so riddled with cannon balls that she was in danger of going down. He preferred, he said to those around him, to sink with his colours flying. The purser, however, lowered the ensign without orders, and a moment afterwards the Dutch, who had closed in, took possession. The prize proved to be the *Bom Jesus*, from Lisbon, which had got separated from a fleet on the way to Goa, under command of the newly appointed viceroy, the count De Feira. She had a crew of one hundred and eighty men. The officers were detained as prisoners, the others were put ashore on the island Saint George with provisions sufficient to last them two days.

On the 23rd of August the fleet sailed from Mozambique for India. There can be little question that this defeat of the Dutch was more advantageous to them than victory would have been, for if their design had succeeded a very heavy tax upon their resources and their energy would have been entailed thereafter. They did not realise this fact, however, and fifty-five years later another unsuccessful attempt was made to acquire the coveted East African possessions.

Although Fort São Sebastião after the last siege was provided with a garrison of one hundred and fifty men and some small armed vessels were kept on the coast to endeavour to prevent the Dutch from communicating with the natives or obtaining provisions and water, their ships kept the Portuguese stations in constant alarm. In the eastern seas they were by this time the dominant power, and were fast building up a commerce greater by far than the Portuguese had ever carried on. They distributed their spices and silks over Europe, whereas their predecessors were satisfied

with making Lisbon a market, to which purchasers of other nations might come for whatever they needed.

On the 21st of November 1609 Pieter Both was appointed first governor-general of Netherlands India. He left Texel with the next fleet, which sailed in the following January. In a great storm off the Cape his ship got separated from the others, so he put into Table Bay to repair some damages to the mainmast and to refresh his men. In July 1610 Captain Nicholas Downton called at the same port in an English vessel, and found Governor-General Both's ship lying at anchor and also two homeward bound Dutch ships taking in train oil which had been collected at Robben Island.

In May 1611 the Dutch skipper Isaac le Maire, after whom the straits of Le Maire are named, called at Table Bay. When he sailed, he left behind his son Jacob and a party of seamen, who resided in Table Valley for several months. Their object was to kill seals on Robben Island, and to harpoon whales, which were then very abundant in South African waters in the winter season. They also tried to open up a trade for skins of animals with the Hottentots.

In 1616 the assembly of seventeen resolved that its outward bound fleets should always put into Table Bay to refresh the crews, and from that time onward Dutch ships touched there almost every season. A kind of post office was established by marking the dates of arrivals and departures on stones, and burying letters in places indicated. But no attempt was made to explore the country, and no port south of the Zambesi except Table Bay was frequented by Netherlanders, so that in the middle of the century nothing more concerning it was known than the Portuguese had placed on record.

In England an East India Company was also established, whose first fleet, consisting of the *Dragon*, of six hundred tons, the *Hector*, of three hundred tons, the *Ascension*, of two hundred and sixty tons, and the *Susan*, of two hundred and forty tons burden, sailed from Torbay on the 22nd of April 1601. The admiral was James Lancaster, the same who had

commanded the *Edward Bonaventure* ten years earlier. The chief pilot was John Davis, who had only returned from the Indies nine months before. On the 9th of September the fleet came to anchor in Table Bay, by which time the crews of all except the admiral's ship were so terribly afflicted with scurvy that they were unable to drop their anchors. The admiral had kept his men in a tolerable state of health by supplying them with a small quantity of limejuice daily. After his ship was anchored he was obliged to get out his boats and go to the assistance of the others. Sails were then taken on shore to serve as tents, and the sick were landed as soon as possible. Trade was commenced with the natives, and in the course of a few days forty-two oxen and a thousand sheep were obtained for pieces of iron hoop. The fleet remained in Table Bay nearly seven weeks, during which time most of the sick men recovered.

On the 5th of December 1604 the *Tiger*—a ship of two hundred and forty tons—and a pinnace called the *Tiger's Whelp* set sail from Cowes for the Indies. The expedition was under command of Sir Edward Michelburne, and next to him in rank was Captain John Davis. It was the last voyage that this famous seaman was destined to make, for he was killed in an encounter with Japanese pirates on the 27th of December 1605. The journal of the voyage contains the following paragraph:—

“The 3rd of April 1605 we sailed by a little island which Captain John Davis took to be one that stands some five or six leagues from Saldanha. Whereupon our general, Sir Edward Michelburne, desirous to see the island, took his skiff, accompanied by no more than the master's mate, the purser, myself, and four men that did row the boat, and so putting off from the ship we came on land. While we were on shore they in the ship had a storm, which drove them out of sight of the island; and we were two days and two nights before we could recover our ship. Upon the said island is abundance of great conies and seals, whereupon we called it Cony Island.”

On the 8th of April they anchored in Table Bay, where they remained until the 3rd of the following month refreshing themselves.

From this date onward the fleets of the English East India Company made Table Bay a port of call and refreshment, and usually procured in barter from the natives as many cattle as they needed. In 1614 the board of directors sent a ship with as many spare men as she could carry, a quantity of provisions, and some naval stores to Table Bay to wait for the homeward bound fleet, and, while delayed, to carry on a whale and seal fishery as a means of partly meeting the expense. The plan was found to answer fairly well, and it was continued for several years. The relieving vessels left England between October and February, in order to be at the Cape in May, when the homeward bound fleets usually arrived from India. If men were much needed, the victualler—which was commonly an old vessel—was then abandoned, otherwise an ordinary crew was left in her to capture whales, or she proceeded to some port in the East, according to circumstances.

The advantage of a place of refreshment in South Africa was obvious, and as early as 1613 enterprising individuals in the service of the East India Company drew the attention of the directors to the advisability of forming a settlement in Table Valley. Still earlier it was rumoured that the king of Spain and Portugal had such a design in contemplation, with the object of cutting off thereby the intercourse of all other nations with the Indian seas, so that the strategical value of the Cape was already recognised. The directors discussed the matter on several occasions, but their views in those days were very limited, and the scheme seemed too large for them to attempt alone.

In their fleets were officers of a much more enterprising spirit, as they were without responsibility in regard to the cost of any new undertaking. In 1620 some of these proclaimed King James I sovereign of the territory extending from Table Bay to the dominions of the nearest Christian

prince. The records of this event are interesting, as they not only give the particulars of the proclamation and the reasons that led to it, but show that there must often have been a good deal of bustle in Table Valley in those days.

On the 24th of June 1620 four ships bound to Surat, under command of Andrew Shillinge, put into Table Bay, and were joined when entering by two others bound to Bantam, under command of Humphrey Fitzherbert. The Dutch had at this time the greater part of the commerce of the East in their hands, and nine large ships under their flag were found at anchor. The English vessel *Lion* was also there. Commodore Fitzherbert made the acquaintance of some of the Dutch officers, and was informed by them that they had inspected the country around, as their Company intended to form a settlement in Table Valley the following year. Thereupon he consulted with Commodore Shillinge, who agreed with him that it was advisable to try to frustrate the project of the Hollanders. On the 25th the Dutch fleet sailed for Bantam, and the *Lion* left at the same time, but the *Schiedam*, from Delft, arrived and cast anchor.

On the 1st of July the principal English officers, twenty-one in number,—among them the Arctic navigator William Baffin,—met in council, and resolved to proclaim the sovereignty of King James I over the whole country. They placed on record their reasons for this decision, which were, that they were of opinion a few men only would be needed to keep possession of Table Valley, that a plantation would be of great service for the refreshment of the fleets, that the soil was fruitful and the climate pleasant, that the natives would become willing subjects in time and they hoped would also become servants of God, that the whale fishery would be a source of profit, but, above all, that they regarded it as more fitting for the Dutch when ashore there to be subjects of the king of England than for Englishmen to be subject to them or any one else. "Rule Britannia" was a very strong sentiment, evidently, with that party of adventurous seamen.

On the 3rd of July a proclamation of sovereignty was read in presence of as many men of the six ships as could go ashore for the purpose of taking part in the ceremony. Skipper Jan Cornelis Kunst, of the *Schiedam*, and some of his officers were also present, and raised no objection. On the Lion's rump, or King James's mount as Fitzherbert and Shillinge named it, the flag of St. George was hoisted, and was saluted, the spot being afterwards marked by a mound of stones. A small flag was then given to the natives to preserve and exhibit to visitors, which it was believed they would do most carefully.

After going through this ceremony with the object of frustrating the designs of the Dutch, the English officers buried a packet of despatches beside a stone slab in the valley, on which were engraved the letters *W*, they being in perfect ignorance of the fact that those symbols denoted prior possession taken for the Dutch East India Company. On the 25th of July the Surat fleet sailed, and on the next day Fitzherbert's two ships followed, leaving at anchor in the bay only the English ship *Bear*, which had arrived on the 10th.

The proceeding of Fitzherbert and Shillinge, which was entirely unauthorised, was not confirmed by the directors of the East India Company or by the government of England, and nothing whatever came of it. At that time the ocean commerce of England was small, and as she had just entered upon the work of colonising North America, she was not prepared to attempt to form a settlement in South Africa also. Her king and the directors of her India Company had no higher ambition than to enter into a close alliance with the Dutch Company, and to secure by this means a stated proportion of the trade of the East. In the Netherlands also a large and influential party was in favour of either forming a federated company, or of a binding union of some kind, so as to put it out of the power of the Spaniards and Portuguese to harm them. From 1613 onward this matter was frequently discussed on both sides of the

Channel, and delegates went backward and forward, but it was almost impossible to arrange terms.

The Dutch had many fortresses which they had either built or taken from the Portuguese in Java and the Spice islands, and the English had none, so that the conditions of the two parties were unequal. In 1617, however, the kings of France and Denmark sent ships to the eastern seas, and there was a possibility that one or other of them might unite with Holland or England. Accordingly each party was more willing than before to make concessions, and on the 2nd of June 1619 a close alliance was entered into. The English Company was to bear half the cost of offensive and defensive operations in the Indian seas, and was to have one-third of the trade of the Moluccas, Banda, and Amboina, the remaining eastern commerce to be free for each party to make the most of.

The rivalry, however,—bordering closely on animosity—between the servants of the two Companies in distant lands prevented any agreement made in Europe being carried out, and though in 1623 another treaty of alliance was entered into, in the following year it was dissolved. Thereafter the great success of the Dutch in the East placed them beyond the desire of partnership with competitors.

While these negotiations were in progress, a proposal was made from Holland that a refreshment station should be established in South Africa for the joint use of the fleets of the two nations, and the English directors received it favourably. They undertook to cause a search for a proper place to be made by the next ship sent to the Cape with relief for the returning fleet, and left the Dutch at liberty to make a similar search in any convenient way. Accordingly on the 30th of November 1619 the assembly of seventeen issued instructions to the commodore of the fleet then about to sail to examine the coast carefully from Saldanha Bay to a hundred or a hundred and fifty miles east of the Cape of Good Hope, in order that the best harbour for the purpose might be selected. This was done, and an opinion was

pronounced in favour of Table Bay. In 1622 a portion of the coast was inspected for the same purpose by Captain Johnson, in the English ship *Rose*, but his opinion of Table Bay and the other places which he visited was such that he would not recommend any of them. The tenor of his report mattered little, however, for with the failure of the close alliance between the two companies, the design of establishing a refreshment station in South Africa was abandoned by both.

Perhaps the ill opinion of Table Bay formed by Captain Johnson may have arisen from an occurrence that took place on its shore during the previous voyage of the *Rose*. That ship arrived in the bay on the 28th of January 1620, and on the following day eight of her crew went ashore with a seine to catch fish near the mouth of Salt River. They never returned, but the bodies of four were afterwards found and buried, and it was believed that the Hottentots had either carried the other four away as prisoners or had murdered them and concealed the corpses.

This was not the only occurrence of the kind, for in March 1632 twenty-three men belonging to a Dutch ship that put into Table Bay lost their lives in conflict with the natives. The cause of these quarrels is not known with certainty, but at the time it was believed they were brought on by the Europeans attempting to rob the Hottentots of cattle.

An experiment was once made with a view of trying to secure a firm friend among the Hottentots, and impressing those people with respect for the wonders of civilisation. A savage named Cory was taken from the Cape to England, where he was made a great deal of, and received many rich and valuable presents. Sir Thomas Smythe, the governor of the East India Company, was particularly kind to him, and gave him among other things a complete suit of brass armour. He returned to South Africa with Captain Nicholas Downton in the ship *New Year's Gift*, and in June 1614 landed in Table Valley with all his treasures. But Captain

Downton, who thought that he was overflowing with gratitude, saw him no more. Cory returned to his former habits of living, and instead of acting as was anticipated, taught his countrymen to despise bits of copper in exchange for their cattle, so that for a long time afterwards it was impossible for ships that called to obtain a supply of fresh meat.

It has been seen what use the Portuguese made of convicts when they were exploring unknown countries, or when there were duties of a particularly hazardous or unpleasant nature to be performed. The English employed criminals in the same manner. In January 1615 the governor of the East India Company obtained permission from the king to transport some men under sentence of death to countries occupied by savages, where, it was supposed, they would be the means of procuring supplies of provisions, making discoveries, and creating trade. The records in existence—unless there are documents in some unknown place—furnish too scanty material for a complete account of the manner in which this design was carried out. Only the following can be ascertained with certainty. A few days after the consent of the king was given, the sheriffs of London sent seventeen men from Newgate on board ships bound to the Indies, and these were voluntarily accompanied by three others, who appear to have been convicted criminals, but not under sentence of death. The proceeding was regarded as “a very charitable deed and a means to bring them to God by giving them time for repentance, to crave pardon for their sins, and reconcile themselves unto His favour.” In June the fleet arrived in Table Bay, and nine of the condemned men were set ashore with their own free will.

In one of the ships of this fleet Sir Thomas Roe, English envoy to the Great Mogul, was a passenger. A pillar bearing an inscription of his embassy was set up in Table Valley, and thirty or forty pounds weight of stone which he believed to contain quicksilver and vermilion was taken

away to be assayed in England, but of particulars that would be much more interesting now no information whatever is to be had from the records of his journey.

Again, in June 1616, three condemned men were set ashore in Table Valley, and a letter signed by them is extant, in which they acknowledge the clemency of King James in granting them their forfeited lives, and promise to do his Majesty good and acceptable service.

There may have been other instances of the kind, of which no record is in existence now. How the criminals lived, what effect their residence had upon the native clans, and how they died, must be left to conjecture. The fate of only a very few is known. These made their way back to England, and were there executed for fresh offences.

No further effort was made by the English at this time to form a connection with the natives of South Africa, though their ships continued to call at Table Bay for the purpose of taking in water and getting such other refreshment as was obtainable. They did not attempt to explore the country or to correct the charts of its coasts, nor did they frequent any of its ports except Table Bay, and very rarely Mossel Bay, until a much later date. A few remarks in ships' journals, and a few pages of observations and opinions in a book of travels such as that of Sir Thomas Herbert, from none of which can any reliable information be obtained that is not also to be drawn from earlier Portuguese writers, are all the contributions to a knowledge of South Africa made by Englishmen during the early years of the seventeenth century. Though our countrymen were behind no others in energy and daring, as Drake, Raleigh, Gilbert, Davis, Hawkins, and a host of others had proved so well, not forgetting either the memorable story of the *Revenge*, which Jan Huyghen van Linschoten handed down for a modern historian to write in more thrilling words, England had not yet entered fully upon her destined career either of discovery or of commerce, the time when "the ocean wave should be her home" was still in the days to come.

CHAPTER XV.

FRUITLESS SEARCH FOR SILVER MINES.

THE power of the Portuguese in the East was irrecoverably broken, and their possessions were falling one after another into stronger hands, but the individual who was most affected by the change could not, or did not, realise the extent of his loss. That individual was Philippe, the third of Spain, the second of Portugal, who among his numerous titles still retained that of Lord of the Conquest, Navigation, and Commerce of Ethiopia, Arabia, Persia, and India. Perhaps he did not know of all the disasters that had overtaken his subjects, for he heard nothing except through the ears of the duke of Lerma, and that all-powerful favourite was not the man to point out that his empire was crumbling away, or to suggest any efficient means of preserving what still remained of it.

Accordingly in the royal orders to the viceroys of India, which commenced with the phrase "I the king," instructions were given in as lofty language as if Philippe was still really lord of the East and in receipt of an ample revenue. With regard to the coast of South-Eastern Africa, a hundred and fifty—a little later raised to three hundred—soldiers were to be stationed at Mozambique, the fortifications of Sofala were to be thoroughly repaired and provided with a garrison, forts were to be constructed at the different mouths of the Zambesi to protect the entrances of that river, Tete and Sena were to be made secure, and a fleet of armed vessels was to be kept cruising up and down the coast, so as to make the whole line impregnable. But where were the men and the ships and the money to come from? That question could not

be answered, and thus matters remained in the most wretched condition imaginable.

On the 21st of March 1608 the king wrote to Dom João Froyas Pereira, count of Feira, then viceroy of India, that Sebastião de Macedo and Dom Estevão d'Ataide, successively captains of Mozambique, had sent specimens of silver ore to Lisbon so rich as to yield two-thirds of their weight pure metal. The exact locality where the ore was obtained was unknown, but it was believed to be at Chicova, on the southern bank of the Zambesi some distance above Tete. The king therefore ordered the viceroy to send a force of five hundred men under Sebastião de Macedo, Dom Estevão d'Ataide, or some other suitable person, to search for the mines and take possession of them. In addition to the fortifications and garrisons already mentioned, four strongholds, which Dom Estevão d'Ataide had represented as necessary to secure the country, were to be built and occupied, namely one each at Chicova, Masapa, Bukoto, and Luanze. No ground except the actual mines was to be taken from the natives, nor was the government of the Monomotapa over his people to be interfered with in any way. The general in command of the expedition was to have supreme control in South-Eastern Africa, and upon his arrival was to appoint a new captain of Mozambique, who was to command the garrison and town in subordination to him.

The time was opportune for such an enterprise, as the principal Kalanga tribe had for some years been engaged in civil war, and the Portuguese had acquired considerable influence in the country. In 1597, when Nuno da Cunha was captain of Mozambique, a powerful tribe on the border, under a chief named Tshunzo, made war upon the Monomotapa, and sent two strong armies into his territory. One of these, under the induna Kapampo, marched as far as Masapa, but retreated on learning that an immense Kalanga force under Ningomosha, the Monomotapa's general in chief, was rapidly approaching. In retreating, Kapampo laid the country along his line of march utterly waste, so that Ningomosha was unable to follow

him. The Monomotapa of the time, Gasilusere by name, was addicted to the use of dacha, and was otherwise a cruel, passionate, faithless tyrant. Though Ningomosha was in no way to blame for what had occurred, and was the next in rank to himself in the tribe, he caused him to be put to death for having failed to overtake Kapampo, and by this act raised against himself a large section of the people.

The other division of Tshunzo's force, under the induna Tshikanda, marched to within a short distance of the great place, and there made peace with the Monomotapa on condition of being permitted to retain possession of the district it was then occupying. Two years later, however, the war was renewed, when Tshikanda robbed some slaves who were trading for their Portuguese masters, upon which the inhabitants of Tete and Sena joined the Monomotapa against him. They were seventy-five in number, and took with them about two thousand Kaffir warriors, the whole force being under the command of Belchior d'Araujo, captain of Tete. Tshikanda was found within a lager, surrounded by about thirty thousand Makalanga. He had only six hundred warriors with him, but he had made as light of his opponents as a cat would of so many mice, attacking them by day and night and slaughtering many of them. The Portuguese approached the lager under cover of wickerwork screens carried before them, and shot so many of those within that Tshikanda offered to surrender on condition that the lives of his people should be spared. The Makalanga would not agree to this, so that night the besieged band attempted to cut its way through them, and Tshikanda and a few of his followers escaped. At dawn next morning the Portuguese entered the lager, and found a considerable amount of spoil. They then returned to their homes, after having obtained from the Monomotapa, in recompense of their services, permission to carry arms wherever they should travel in his country, a privilege they had not enjoyed before.

The defeat of Tshikanda, instead of restoring peace to the Kalanga tribe, brought on civil war, for the party that resented

the death of Ningomosh, being no longer apprehensive of danger from a foreign foe, rose in revolt against the drunken and ferocious Monomotapa. They gained some successes, but when a few Portuguese under the leadership of Francisco da Cunha, captain of the Gates, went to the Monomotapa's aid, they lost heart and fled to the territory of a chief who was supposed to be friendly to their cause. This chief, however, instead of receiving them as they had anticipated, seized their leader, cut off his head, and sent it to the Monomotapa. By this act another of the rebel commanders, a man of great energy and ability, named Matuzianye, became the head of the insurgents, and he carried on the war so skilfully that in a few years he was master of nearly the whole country.

The Monomotapa was in a sore plight when a Portuguese trader named Diogo Simões Madeira, who had been some time resident at Tete, volunteered to assist him. This man raised a small company of Europeans armed with arquebuses, with whose assistance the legitimate Kalanga ruler recovered a large part of his territory. As a reward to his Portuguese friend for such valuable service he made him a present of the district of Inyabanzo adjoining the lands subject to Tete, with sovereign rights over the people residing in it. Further, on the 1st of August 1607, being encamped on the bank of the river Mazoe, he attached his mark to a document formally drawn up by the notary Miguel Nunes, in which he ceded to the king of Portugal all the mines of gold, copper, iron, pewter, and lead in his country, on condition that the king should maintain him in his position. All silver mines he granted to Diogo Madeira, who in the same document transferred them to the king. Under his name on the deed of gift the Monomotapa with his own hand made three crosses, and the document was signed as principals by Miguel Nunes and Diogo Simões Madeira. As witnesses the signatures were attached of the friar João Lobo, vicar of Luanze, the friar Manuel de São Vicente, chaplain of the force, and twenty-four other Portuguese, in addition to the marks of several who could not write.

As a proof of good faith the Monomotapa delivered to Diogo Madeira two of his sons, in order that they might be educated at Tete and brought up as Christians, and he promised to give two of his daughters for the same purpose. Shortly after this event the principal army of the insurgents was defeated in a pitched battle, and the Monomotapa regained possession of his great place. The Portuguese then returned to Tete, taking with them the two young chiefs,—the daughters were never given to them,—and the country was apparently again in a condition of peace. The sons of the great chief were maintained in the house of Diogo Madeira, and having received instruction from the Dominican friars were baptized with the names Philippe and Diogo. The elder of the two, Philippe, then returned to his father, but Diogo remained at Tete, where he was taught to read and write as well as to assist the friars in the services of the church.

A year passed away, and the Monomotapa collected his army again to attack the rebels who had not submitted. The tribe under Mongasi had hitherto maintained neutrality, but he now fell upon that chief and caused him to be killed. Thereupon the Mongasis effected a junction with Matuzianye, and at once the tide of success turned. The Monomotapa's forces were defeated, and in a short time he was reduced to the greatest straits. Matuzianye then invaded Inyabanzo, but was driven back by Diogo Madeira, who built a strong lager and stationed twenty arquebusiers and three hundred Kaffir warriors in it. It was hardly completed when messengers arrived from the Monomotapa, urgently begging for assistance. The great chief had just been defeated by Matuzianye in a battle in which he had been wounded himself and his eldest son had been killed. Diogo Madeira sent out a party that found the distressed fugitive, and escorted him to the lager at Inyabanzo, where he remained three months under the protection of the Portuguese. Then he removed to Tshidima, farther up the southern bank of the Zambesi, where he would be within easy reach of European aid should his enemies

attack him again. Surely romance furnishes nothing more strange than the hereditary chief of the largest and most advanced tribe of Southern Africa depending for existence upon the favour of a European adventurer with barely a couple of score of arquebuses at his command.

This was the state of affairs when the king's orders concerning the search for the silver mines were issued. The count of Feira, to whom they were addressed, died while they were on the way out, and the friar Dom Aleixo de Menezes, archbishop of Goa, was acting as governor-general of Portuguese India when they arrived. He could not carry them out completely, but he did what was possible by appointing Dom Nuno Alvares Pereira, an officer of energy and ability, captain general of the Conquest, and giving him a hundred soldiers to accompany him to South-Eastern Africa. In March 1609 the captain general arrived at Tete, and at once sent thirty soldiers to act as a bodyguard to the Monomotapa. Having made the necessary arrangements, he directed Diogo Madeira to proceed to Tshidima in command of the remaining seventy soldiers and two thousand Kaffirs of Tete, and instructed him to deliver a valuable present to the Monomotapa, whom he was to persuade to accompany the expedition to Chicova and point out the silver mines. The Monomotapa consented to this arrangement. On the way the chief of the clan that occupied Chicova met the party and presented three small pieces of silver ore to the Portuguese leader, but he and his attendants disappeared immediately afterwards, and on arriving at the place neither the Monomotapa nor any one else was able to point out a mine. Still it was believed that if the fugitive chief and his people could be captured they would be able to do so, and therefore it was resolved to suppress the insurrection as a preliminary measure.

After a stay of eighteen days at Chicova the Portuguese army with all the warriors the Monomotapa could collect marched against Matuzianye, and in a series of engagements inflicted such losses upon him that he was at length com-

pelled to take refuge with a few followers on a strong mountain. The Portuguese, however, met with some reverses as well. At Bukoto they were defeated, and for a short time that station was occupied by the enemy. When at length Matuzianye's adherents were completely dispersed Diogo Madeira left ten soldiers as a bodyguard with the Monomotapa, who was then at his great place, and with the remainder of his force he returned to Tete, taking with him several men of rank who were directed by the chief to transfer the silver mines to the captain general. Shortly after this Matuzianye was treacherously assassinated by an agent of the Monomotapa, and organised opposition to the authority of the legitimate ruler entirely ceased throughout the country, though some robber bands still held out in the mountains.

In the meantime Ruy Lourenço de Tavora had arrived at Goa as viceroy, and had appointed Dom Estevão d'Ataide captain general of the Conquest. Dom Estevão had arrived at Sena, and Dom Nuno Alvares Pereira had gone down the river to meet him and transfer the government. Diogo Madeira therefore proceeded to Sena with the Monomotapa's envoys, and introduced them to the new captain general, at the same time reporting all that had occurred. But now a great change took place in the attitude of the Kalanga deputies. Their tribe was once more united, and they felt themselves strong enough to resist the little party of Portuguese to whom they had been so submissive while Matuzianye was alive and in rebellion. They therefore put on a bold face, and demanded the merchandise which each new captain of Mozambique had been obliged to send to the Monomotapa on entering office. Dom Estevão d'Ataide made large promises, but gave no cloth. He sent the Kalanga deputies back to Masapa with Diogo Carvalho and fifty soldiers, who built a stockade or strong lager there, and occupied it as a garrison. A robber band, consisting of the most determined of the late rebels, was in possession of a mountain stronghold close by, so the Monomotapa sent an army to encamp in the neighbourhood, in expectation that the Portuguese

would assist to destroy it. The robbers attacked Masapa twice, and caused some loss, but Carvalho was not to be drawn from his fort.

As Dom Estevão's promises were not fulfilled, the Monomotapa grew weary of waiting for the merchandise which his envoys had asked for, and ordered a general empata, or confiscation of Portuguese property, throughout his country. Several traders were killed in resisting it, and even Diogo Madeira, who was on a bartering expedition at the time, although he had performed such eminent services for the great chief, was robbed of all his goods and barely escaped with his life. Diogo Carvalho, on learning what was taking place, formed an alliance with the robbers in his neighbourhood, and together with them fell upon the Kalanga camp one night and created great havoc in it. He then abandoned Masapa and retired to Tete, leaving no Portuguese in the interior of the Monomotapa's country.

Dom Estevão d'Ataide now resolved upon war with the Kalanga tribe. The force under his command, consisting of only one hundred and twenty-five soldiers, was altogether too puny for such an undertaking, but he hoped to obtain the aid of the clans that had been recently in rebellion as well as of the tribes along the Zambesi that were the hereditary enemies of the Monomotapa. He shifted his headquarters from Sena to Tete, and sent Diogo Carvalho two days' journey farther up the river to build and occupy a fort to be called Santo Estevão. This was just accomplished when a complete break in the proceedings occurred. It was reported in Lisbon that a fleet of unusual strength was about to leave Holland for India, so on the 10th of October 1611 the king issued instructions that the captain general of the Conquest was at once to reinforce the garrison of Mozambique, which then consisted of only twenty-five soldiers. In consequence of this order, in March 1612 Dom Estevão was obliged to leave Tete with all his force, and seven months elapsed before he could return. Diogo Madeira, who had received from the viceroy the appointment of captain of Tete

for life, remained behind with the permanent residents of the place, but they, though assisted by their Bantu subjects and by the people of the district of Inyabanzo, could do nothing more than defend themselves against the army which the Monomotapa sent to attack them.

In 1612 reinforcements of troops arrived at Mozambique from Portugal, and Dom Estevão d'Ataide was enabled to return to the Zambesi. But the king was becoming dissatisfied with the want of progress in conquest or discovery, and he found fault with the terms on which the viceroy Ruy Lourenço de Tavora had engaged the captain general. To the new viceroy, Dom Jeronymo d'Azevedo, he wrote that his predecessor had no authority to promise high honours and favours to Dom Estevão in the event of his being successful, and he directed that the agreement with him should be annulled. Dom Estevão was to proceed to India, leaving the direction of military matters in the hands of Diogo Simões Madeira, who was made a member of the order of Christ and was granted a small annual pension, besides being confirmed in possession of the district of Inyabanzo and promised the rank of a nobleman should he succeed in discovering and opening the silver mines. He was not, however, to have the position of captain general of the Conquest, as Ruy de Mello de Sampayo, who had a claim to the captaincy of Mozambique under the former condition of affairs, was to have the civil administration and independent command of Fort São Sebastião given to him with a monopoly of the commerce south of the Zambesi on the usual terms.

Ruy de Mello de Sampayo was not in India when this order arrived, so the viceroy appointed his own brother Dom João d'Azevedo captain of Mozambique for one year, and recalled Dom Estevão d'Ataide. Nothing of any consequence had been done since his return to Tete, and in July 1613 Dom Estevão laid down the command and set out for India, but died at Mozambique on the way, leaving property in gold, ivory, &c. worth one hundred and ten thousand cruzados, which the judge Francisco da Fonseca Pinto, who had

been sent from India to conduct the usual examination into his conduct, placed in safe keeping.* It was subsequently confiscated for the benefit of the royal treasury, and was used to pay for repairing the fortifications of Mozambique. The death of Dom Estevão saved him from the punishment often inflicted upon the unsuccessful, whether they were guilty of misconduct or not. On the 8th of March 1613 the king wrote to the viceroy to have him arrested and tried for furthering his own interests at Tete instead of proceeding with the conquest and for having taken to the Zambesi a hundred and fifty disciplined soldiers from Fort São Sebastião and left in their stead only forty or fifty recruits, whereas he was under obligation to maintain at Mozambique two hundred soldiers and to employ five hundred in the expedition in search of the mines. If he was found guilty of these offences he was to be sent to Portugal a prisoner in chains. This was the fate designed by the king for the man who had so gallantly defended Mozambique against the Dutch, but who had failed to carry out an engagement to raise an army when men were not to be had.

Diogo Madeira with the slender force under his command now undertook the enterprise in which two officers of superior rank and authority had failed. On the 10th of August 1613, having received transfer of the soldiers and a trifling quantity of military stores, he left Sena to proceed up the river in boats, but had hardly set out when he encountered opposition. There was a clan living close to Sena under a chief named Tshombe, who during the recent disturbances had come under the protection of the Portuguese, and had agreed to pay as tribute a certain quantity of millet yearly. Seeing the weakness of his protectors now that the civil war in the country was ended, this man was disposed to assert his independence, and when the new commander called upon him to

* The chronicler of these events in one place incidentally states that eighteen maticals of gold were equal to nearly thirty cruzados, so that this amount would represent about £29,500. Whenever the cruzado of King Sebastião is meant it is termed a cruzado d'ouro.

pay his tribute and to surrender some fugitive slaves whom he was harbouring, he refused to comply. He even attempted to prevent the flotilla passing up the river until a toll was paid to him, but was defeated in an engagement, and the boats proceeded onward.

As it was necessary to keep open the communication by the Zambesi with the sea, on his arrival at Tete Diogo Madeira raised as large an army as he could to proceed against Tshombe. It consisted of one hundred European and mixed breed arquebusiers and six thousand Bantu warriors from the lands of Tete and Inyabanzo. With these he marched down the river bank and attacked his opponent, who was found entrenched in a very strong lager and well supplied with means of defence. The attack failed, and all the men that could be collected at Sena, consisting of forty arquebusiers and three thousand Kaffirs under a friendly chief named Kwitambo, were then summoned to assist. Again an attempt to take the lager by storm was unsuccessful, so it was besieged for over two months in the hope of starving the defenders. In an assault on the 16th of November some advantage was gained, and that night Tshombe and a few of his followers made their way through the blockading force and escaped. On Sunday the 17th of November the Portuguese obtained possession of the lager, and secured as spoil some ivory and loincloths of native manufacture, besides eight thousand adults and as many children, who were made slaves. Fifty soldiers were left in the lager to prevent its being reoccupied, and Tshombe was pursued until nearly all of his warriors were slain. The territory he had occupied was then given to Kwitambo, who engaged to pay tribute for it, and Diogo Madeira with his army returned to Tete.

Here he was gladdened by a message from the Monomotapa that if he would pay the quantity of merchandise usually given by those entering office he might take possession of Chicova in peace. Goods to the value of four thousand cruzados were at once forwarded, and in return a man of rank was sent by the Kalanga ruler to transfer the

district supposed to contain the silver mines. Accordingly, on the 15th of April 1614 Diogo Madeira left Tete with a hundred soldiers, six hundred Bantu warriors, and a number of slaves carrying stores, and on the 8th of May reached Chicova, where he set about building a fort or stockaded enclosure which he named São Miguel. The envoy of the Monomotapa was with him, but could not point out a mine, and the chief of the locality fled as soon as the object of the expedition became known. On being applied to, the Monomotapa sent a piece of silver ore weighing about half a pound, and with it a man named Tsherema, who had found it at Chicova; but Tsherema could only point out loose pieces of ore, not a mine. Diogo Madeira caused him to be beaten and imprisoned, but to no purpose, for he was never able to show his tormentors what they so much desired to see.

The northern bank of the Zambesi opposite Chicova was occupied by an independent chief named Sapoe, who professed to be a friend of the Portuguese. He gave them permission to trade freely in his country, and offered them a road through it to Tete. Diogo Madeira availed himself of this, and a path was explored on the Bororo side of the river past the rapids of Kebrabasa to navigable water. With Sapoe's consent a stockade, named Santo Antonio, was built and occupied opposite São Miguel, so that the ferry was completely under Portuguese control. Fort Santo Estevão farther down on the southern side was destroyed, as there were no men to occupy it.

Being without means either to explore the country or even to feed those who were with him, as no aid of any kind had yet reached him from Portugal or India, on the 24th of June Diogo Madeira was compelled to leave for Tete and Sena, taking with him nearly the whole of his people. During his absence Diogo Teixeira Barros, with forty-four soldiers and some slaves, was entrusted with the defence of the stockades São Miguel and Santo Antonio. On arriving at Sena, instead of finding the assistance he was hoping for,

Madeira received instructions from the king that he must send the soldiers brought by Dom Estevão d'Ataide back to Mozambique, as that island was in danger of being attacked. In consequence of this order thirty were despatched in a pangayo, all that could be mustered, as some had died and the others were at Chicova. Nothing could illustrate better than this event the exhausted condition of Portugal at the time.

The captain still hoped that a supply of merchandise would be sent from India to enable him to carry on his work, so he resolved to keep the Monomotapa in good humour by means of presents and to engage every resident along the river that would enter his service. He therefore sent the great chief a silken banner, a gold head ornament, and a small quantity of cloth, with a complimentary message; but as the whole was of trifling value it was regarded with contempt by the Kalanga ruler, who imprisoned the men that took it to him and made a demand for a number of articles that he named. To obtain these Diogo Madeira was obliged to compel such inhabitants of Sena as were in possession of goods to sell them to him on credit without any prospect of payment being ever made, and thus he created enemies when he sorely needed friends. The Monomotapa, however, appeared to be appeased, and released his prisoners, so Madeira set out on his return to the stockade São Miguel with all the men and stores he had been able to collect.

Meantime Barros found himself in great difficulties at Chicova. He was so badly in want of food that he was compelled to take it by force from the natives, which naturally aroused their enmity. Then the son of the Monomotapa who had been baptized with the name of Philippe having displeased his father fled to Fort São Miguel and claimed protection. This was given to him, upon which the Monomotapa sent an army to destroy the stockade. On the 18th of March 1615 it was attacked, but was successfully defended until the 20th, when Diogo Madeira arrived at

Santo Antonio with the reinforcements he had collected, and while he was crossing the river with them the hostile army withdrew.

There was now a small band of Portuguese with a considerable number of slaves, having provisions for only a few months, in an advanced stockade in an enemy's country. A line of retreat was open by crossing the river and marching down its northern bank past the rapids, and then recrossing to Tete. There defence for a long time was possible, as a strong Bantu force could be raised from the subject clans and in the district of Inyabanzo, and in case of necessity the river would furnish conveyance to Sena and the sea. Under these circumstances Diogo Madeira decided to remain where he was until aid could reach him from Portugal or India. He sent the young chief Philippe to Tete, and provided for his maintenance there, as his friendship might be of importance at some future time. He then made as thorough a search as was possible in the vicinity of the stockade, and though nothing that could be called a mine was discovered, the prisoner Tsherema pointed out a place where several loose pieces of rich silver ore were picked up, some weighing many pounds.

To send specimens of these to Lisbon and to Goa, and thus to create such an interest in the undertaking as would cause sufficient assistance to be sent to him, was now the first object of Diogo Madeira. This was not so easy of accomplishment as might be supposed. It was believed that the jealousy of Ruy de Mello de Sampayo, who in 1615 became captain of Mozambique,* would be aroused by the

* The following are the principal clauses of the contract entered into with him by the government at Lisbon, dated 17th of March 1614. His three years term of office was to commence on the day that he took formal possession of the fortress. He was to pay annually 40,000 xerafins of 300 reis each (about £7,500). All the expenses of the forts constructed for the defence of the trade, including the pay of the troops necessary for that purpose, were to be defrayed by him. The ordinary expenses of the fortress of Mozambique and of the hospital at that place were to be defrayed by him, but were to be deducted from the 40,000 xerafins, and the balance

intelligence, and that the specimens would probably never get beyond that island except as coming from him. To meet this difficulty Gaspar Bocarro, a faithful friend of Diogo Madeira, volunteered to go overland to some port high up on the eastern coast, and thence by way of the Red sea and the Mediterranean to Portugal. He was an old inhabitant of the country, and as he was wealthy he offered to perform this service at his own cost and in addition to contribute two thousand cruzados towards the maintenance of Fort São Miguel during his absence. At the same time the Dominican friar Francisco d'Avelar offered to go to India and Portugal by way of Mozambique, trusting that his habit would protect him from interference on the way.

In February 1616 the two envoys set out, each taking with him a quantity of silver ore and attested certificates that it had been found at Chicova. The friar reached Goa in safety, and after delivering a report to the viceroy, proceeded to Lisbon and thence to Madrid, where the specimens and documents which he produced caused great satisfaction to the king and the court.

Gaspar Bocarro, who was an experienced African traveller, took with him ten or twelve slaves to carry the specimens of ore, a quantity of beads, some calico, and a thousand bracelets of copper wire. With this merchandise he procured food, guides, and porters, and so made his way without difficulty from Tete to the southern extremity of Lake Nyassa. He crossed the Shire—called the Nhanha in his journal—in canoes close to its outflow from the lake,* and

was to be sent to Goa. He was not to be present, personally or by representative, when the duty of one per cent was being levied on his merchandise. All the usual presents to the chiefs of the interior were to be sent by him, at the proper times, at his own cost. He was to take over his predecessor's stock of goods. He was to have the sole right to trade upon the banks of the rivers Zambesi and Sofala (the whole country southward being included). He was authorised to seize and appropriate any merchandise taken into the country without his permission.

* This journey of Gaspar Bocarro does not detract in the least degree from the merit of the reverend Dr. Livingstone's discovery of Lake Nyassa.

proceeding upward between the eastern side of Nyassa and the coast, was ferried over other rivers named the Ruambara and the Rofuma. Part of the country on his route was found still a desert waste, as it had been left by the Mazimba. On the fifty-third day after his departure from Tete he reached Kilwa, where he procured a conveyance to Mombasa. Here he found it would be impossible to go up the Red sea, on account of wars then being carried on in those parts, so with much regret he went to Mozambique and thence returned to the Zambesi.

While the envoys were on their way Diogo Madeira tried to make the best of matters at his stockades. He dared not go far from São Miguel, but in its vicinity more pieces of silver ore were found, which were sent down to Tete and exchanged for calico, so that he was able for a time to obtain provisions. In January 1616 he had been joined by the Dominican friar João dos Santos, who had petitioned to be sent from India to South-Eastern Africa as soon as he heard that the Monomotapa Gasilusere had consented to two of his sons being educated as Christians. His experience, he thought, might even be instrumental in converting the Monomotapa himself. His provincial consented, and the king ordered his expenses to be defrayed by the royal treasury and that he should be employed on some official mission to the Monomotapa that would add to his dignity and influence. Dos Santos was an old man when he reached the Zambesi again, and he must have been bitterly disappointed with the turn affairs had taken. He was, however, as full of zeal as in his younger years, and when a message reached him at Sena that the departure of Francisco d'Avelar would leave the defenders of the stockade São Miguel without a spiritual

The great missionary traveller first saw the outflow of the Shire on the 16th of September 1859, two hundred and forty-three years after Bocarro was at the same spot. But the account given here was then buried in the Portuguese archives, and was entirely unknown to any one. Besides though it is easy now to follow Bocarro's route from his description of it, it would have been impossible to do so before Dr. Livingstone's minute description of the country was published,

comforter, he did not hesitate, but proceeded up the river to the lonely post to minister to them and to share their discomforts.

Some time before the friar Francisco d'Avelar reached Goa with the specimens of silver ore, Dom Jeronymo d'Azevedo had received bitter complaints from the traders whose merchandise Diogo Madeira had practically seized by force, and also from the residents of Mozambique concerning similar conduct by the captain Ruy de Mello de Sampayo. The viceroy, therefore, by the advice of the council of state, appointed the judge Francisco da Fonseca Pinto a commissioner to investigate matters in South-Eastern Africa, and gave him very large powers to settle disorder of every kind. He was also supplied with calico and beads for the expedition under Diogo Madeira, in case he should think it proper to assist that enterprise. The judge was accompanied by one of his friends named Salvador Vaz da Guerra. He arrived at Mozambique in March 1616, where he summarily dismissed Ruy de Mello de Sampayo from office, and appointed Da Guerra in his stead. He then went on to the Zambesi, and arrived at Quilimane in May.

By this time the garrison of Fort São Miguel was reduced to great distress. The summer had been so intensely hot that for weeks together to touch a stone exposed to the sun's rays caused the skin to blister, and sickness had prevailed to an alarming extent. Most of the able-bodied slaves had run away, those who remained could not venture outside the stockade, and so great was the scarcity of food that if not relieved the place must soon be abandoned from hunger. There were only forty-four soldiers left to guard it. As soon therefore as Diogo Madeira heard that a commissioner with extensive powers had arrived at the rivers he wrote urging that assistance should be forwarded without delay, but received no reply.

Instead of sending at least some calico that food might be purchased with it, the judge passed a couple of months at Sena and Tete, exchanging the merchandise he had brought

from India for gold and ivory. He was able to do this to unusual advantage, as for two years in succession the trading vessels from Mozambique had been lost, and calico and beads were in great demand. He listened to all the complaints against Diogo Madeira, and without a trial confiscated his property at Tete and made his nephew a prisoner. On the 1st of August 1616 he left Tete for Chicova with a hundred and fifty soldiers and two thousand Kaffirs, but when he was within a day's march of Fort São Miguel Diogo Madeira, fearing to place himself in the power of a man who had acted in so hostile a manner, crossed the river to the stockade Santo Antonio, though he left the soldiers behind. On learning this, the judge at once returned to Tete.

All hope of retaining the position at Chicova was now abandoned. The soldiers had parted with their shirts for food, and were half naked as well as more than half starved. Mass was said for the last time in the little structure used as a church, and then Dos Santos with a heavy heart stripped the altar of its ornaments and removed whatever could be taken away. Some slave women and children were first ferried over to Santo Antonio, the soldiers followed, and last of all Diogo Madeira himself bade farewell to the stockade he had held so long in hope of relief being sent to him. It was the 17th of August 1616. On the 18th Santo Antonio was in like manner abandoned, and the party commenced to march down the bank of the river. The soldiers were so weak that two of them died before they reached the ferry below the rapids. Diogo Madeira retired to his district of Inyabanzo, where he remained for a time, and the others went to Tete.

The judge now pronounced the discovery of silver ore at Chicova to be a fable, as the pieces found had probably been carried there from some other place, and he induced the soldiers to sign a document to that effect. Diogo Madeira he proclaimed an outlaw. The Monomotapa, who had already destroyed the abandoned stockade São Miguel, sent an army against the unfortunate captain, and he was obliged to leave

Inyabanzo and take refuge with the chief Kwitambo near Sena until the judge returned to Mozambique, when he went back to Tete an utterly ruined man. The Kalanga army overran Inyabanzo and the territory subject to Tete, until nothing was left to the Portuguese but the fort and the village adjoining it, and even these might have been lost if the residents had not appeased the Monomotapa with presents.

The government at Lisbon disapproved of these proceedings, and instructions were sent to the viceroy to cause the judge Francisco da Fonseca Pinto to be tried by the inquisitor general of India for his conduct, to restore Ruy de Mello de Sampayo to the captaincy of Mozambique for the time wanting to complete his term of three years, and to place Diogo Madeira again in his former position, with means necessary to carry out his enterprise. In accordance with these instructions, in January 1618 some calico was sent from India, and when it reached Sena Diogo Madeira endeavoured to raise and equip another expedition. A few soldiers arrived from Mozambique to take part in it, but before anything of consequence could be done a complete change was made.

It was first resolved to form a separate government of South-Eastern Africa, as in the time of King Sebastião, and a new viceroy of India was appointed and left for Goa under this arrangement; but on the 10th of March 1618 the king wrote to him that the plan had been abandoned. Instead of it a governor of Monomotapa was appointed, who was to reside at Chicova and carry out the conquest of the district in which the mines were situated. Dom Nuno Alvares Pereira, then commander in chief at Ceylon, was the officer selected for the situation. He was to take with him the seasoned troops at Mozambique, whose places were to be supplied by recruits sent from Lisbon, and the viceroy was directed to aid him with trustworthy officers, soldiers, sailors, materials of war, and provisions, at the expense of the treasury of India. Skilled miners and smelters were to be

sent from Portugal and also from India to search the country and develop its mineral wealth. Commerce was to be carried on by the royal treasury, and was to be under the control of Antonio de Maris Lobo, who was appointed overseer of the revenue of Monomotapa. Towards defraying the cost of all this, twenty-two thousand cruzados would be sent from Lisbon, with which merchandise was to be purchased and sent to the Zambesi, there to be used in providing for the conquest. The viceroy was to furnish presents for the Monomotapa and other rulers in the country. Dom Luis de Menezes, or in his default Dom Alvaro da Costa, was to be appointed commander of the garrison of Mozambique, subordinate to the governor of Monomotapa, as the captain of Sofala was also to be. Diogo Simões Madeira was to be retained in favour, and was to be induced to assist in carrying out the conquest.

These instructions are a fair sample of those commonly sent by the king to India at this period. They were written as if almost unlimited resources were at the disposal of the viceroy, whereas it was frequently a matter of the greatest difficulty for him to meet the most essential expenses of his government. The royal orders therefore do not represent what was really done, or what could possibly be done, but merely what the viceroy, without any means to carry them out, was directed to do. In 1618 Portuguese India had not resources equal to effecting an extensive conquest in South-Eastern Africa, even if it could have been done with two hundred soldiers, as an enthusiastic writer, Diogo da Cunha de Castelbranco, believed it might be, provided sufficient calico was supplied for presents to the chiefs.

In February 1619 Dom Nuno Alvares Pereira reached Goa from Ceylon, and soon afterwards sailed for Mozambique with as many men and as good an equipment as the viceroy could furnish him with, though both were inadequate for the task he had in hand. Pangayos were procured at the island, the men and stores were transferred to them, the seasoned troops in Fort São Sebastião were embarked, and the expedition left for the Zambesi. The details of events after its arrival

cannot be given, as the reports and journals of occurrences have disappeared, and Bocarro's chronicle does not extend so far. But it succeeded no better than its predecessors, and no silver mine was found nor was a square yard of ground added to the Portuguese dominions by it.

In January 1620 two vessels were sent from Lisbon with supplies of different kinds for the expedition, and with instructions to Dom Nuno to fortify the entrances to the Zambesi, as the Dutch coveted the mines of Monomotapa and might at any time endeavour to get possession of them. This order could not be carried out for want of means. The Dutch frequently landed at places along the coast and traded with the natives, chiefly for provisions, and it was out of the power of the Portuguese to prevent them doing so; but at this time they made no effort to occupy any part of South-Eastern Africa.

Two years later it was recognised in Portugal that the expedition was a failure, and that the expense of maintaining it was too great a drain upon the treasury to be continued. The trade too, as conducted by the government, had resulted only in loss. With the ships that left Lisbon early in 1622, therefore, instructions were sent by the king to the viceroy to recall Dom Nuno Alvares Pereira * to India and to desist from any further attempt to effect a conquest in the Monomotapa's country. Everything was to revert to the former condition, when the captains of Mozambique, under the direction of the viceroy, had control of civil and military affairs, and held a monopoly of commerce south of the Zambesi on payment of forty thousand cruzados a year to the royal treasury and keeping up the different establishments.

Nuno da Cunha was appointed captain under this system.

* This officer evidently thought something could be made in Africa, for a few years later he petitioned the king to grant him on feudal tenure four hundred leagues of coast from Inhambane towards the Cape of Good Hope, of which he and his heirs should be hereditary captains. The petition was under consideration for a time, but eventually was rejected. We shall meet him again as captain of Mozambique.

He was directed to persevere in the effort to discover the silver mines, but by means of peaceful exploration and conciliation of the Monomotapa. For this purpose not only were the presents made to that ruler according to ancient custom to be forwarded to him, but two horses with equipments and some fine cloth were to be added. Further two Portuguese who were particularly obnoxious to him were to be banished from the country. The knowledge and diligence of Diogo Simões Madeira, who had conducted himself in such a manner as to deserve favour, were to be made use of, and in addition to the often repeated promise of the rank of a nobleman was now added that of a commandery with a revenue of two thousand cruzados a year if he should succeed in finding the silver mines and bringing them into working order. The new captain was to make enquiries about the mines from which the copper used by the Makalanga was obtained, and to ascertain whether they could be acquired and worked to advantage.

The order that the captain of Mozambique should use every effort to make these discoveries was frequently repeated during the following years. Diogo Madeira persevered in the endeavour, and though in 1624, owing to certain proposals that he made, he fell into disfavour with the viceroy, who intended to have him arrested and sent out of the country, the king continued to hold out tempting offers to him if he should succeed. But silver mines, if any really existed along the Zambesi above Tete, were never discovered by the Portuguese, nor was it ascertained whether the loose pieces of ore which beyond all doubt were found at Chicova were there in situ or had been brought from some other locality.

While everything was thus in turmoil along the Zambesi the Dominicans were unable to carry on their mission work among the Makalanga, but they were active at Sena and Tete, and some of them accompanied the Portuguese forces wherever they went. In 1605 they had been reinforced from Europe, and by order of the king those who went out were not permitted to return again unless under special circum-

stances. When the first expedition under Dom Nuno Alvares Pereira was sent from India by the archbishop De Menezes some members of the Society of Jesus accompanied it, but the Dominicans, fearing complications, objected to their rivalry. The king therefore, on the 23rd of January 1610, issued instructions that they alone were to labour in Africa south of the Zambesi, still the Jesuits did not entirely withdraw, and at a little later date they were in considerable strength at Sena. For the support of the Dominicans Dom Nuno Alvares Pereira made considerable grants of land, though as these were still to be conquered their value was purely prospective. From the royal treasury the missionaries received such a trifling allowance that for their maintenance they were chiefly dependent on alms.

The design of King Sebastião half a century earlier concerning the ecclesiastical government of South-Eastern Africa was at this time carried into completion. On the 21st of January 1612 at the request of the king Pope Paul V separated the country from Cape Guardafui to the Cape of Good Hope from the archbishopric of Goa, and created the office of ecclesiastical administrator for it, with powers, however, somewhat less than those of an ordinary bishop. The friar Dom Domingos Terrado, titular bishop of Sale, was appointed to the office, with a yearly salary from the royal treasury of two hundred thousand reis, about £125 sterling. The island of Mozambique, as the seat of the civil and military government, was selected as his place of residence.

At Sofala nothing of any consequence had happened for many years. Being in the territory of the Kiteve and unaffected by occurrences in the Monomotapa's country, commerce could be carried on with the natives just as when the friar João dos Santos lived there. Owing to fear of an attack by the Dutch, in 1615 the fort was put into repair, and thereafter fifteen or twenty soldiers were stationed in it as a garrison. The pangayo with goods from Mozambique once a year formed the principal means of communication with the outer world, though the little vessel that traded at Inhambane

and Delagoa Bay every second or third year sometimes called on her passage up or down the coast. In all the world there could not have been a duller place of existence for Europeans.

The journey of Gaspar Bocarro from Tete to Kilwa had drawn the momentary attention of the king and his court to the country north of the Zambesi, but no steps whatever were taken to form stations in it or to open it to commerce by any other means than before. An order was indeed issued by the king that the captain Nuno da Cunha should endeavour to ascertain whether the lake (Nyassa) would not furnish a road to Abyssinia, but with that order the matter ended. The Portuguese were no longer a nation of explorers.

CHAPTER XVI.

EVENTS OF INTEREST FROM 1628 TO 1652.

THE great tribe over which the Monomotapa ruled was about to be involved again in civil war, and the Portuguese traders at Sena and Tete were once more to acquire an influence in the country altogether out of proportion to their number, even if each one be regarded as a chief and his slaves as a clan of followers, which was practically their position. Kapranzine, son and successor of Gasilusere, showed himself most unfriendly to the Europeans. One of his near relatives, whose name is given by different writers as Manuza and Mavura, was possessed of much more intelligence, and had incurred his extreme jealousy. This man, under the instruction of the Dominican friar Manuel Sardinha, showed an inclination towards Christianity, and was therefore made much of by the Portuguese.

In November 1628 Jeronymo de Barros, an agent of Dom Nuno Alvares Pereira, who had recently assumed duty as captain of Mozambique, arrived at the great place, bringing with him the present which it was necessary to make to the Monomotapa for the privilege of trading in his territory. Whether the quantity or quality of the merchandise forming the presents was such as to cause Kapranzine to be dissatisfied is uncertain, at any rate immediately after receiving it he sent messengers through the country with orders that upon a certain day all the Portuguese and their friends were to be put to death. André Ferreira, the captain of the Gates, who happened to be at the great place when this order was issued, was informed of it by some faithful servants,

and that night with the Bantu who were threatened he managed to get away to Masapa, where the stockade constructed by Diogo Carvalho was hastily prepared for defence. De Barros and his attendants were murdered, as they were unable to escape. Messengers were immediately sent out by Ferreira to warn the traders scattered over the country, and in a very short time all the Christians and their adherents—including Manuza—were collected either at Masapa or at Luanze, where another rude fort was built.

The Monomotapa despatched a great force against these places, but as the defenders fought desperately for their lives, the assailants were beaten back. Several Europeans, however, fell. Meantime the Portuguese at Sena and Tete, having received intelligence of what was transpiring, assembled their people and raised an additional force of Batonga, at whose head they marched to Luanze to assist their countrymen. The defenders of the stockade were relieved, and then by advice of the friars in the camp a very decisive step was taken. Manuza was proclaimed Monomotapa, the banner of the cross was raised, and the army, having elected a man named Manuel Gomes Serrão commander in chief, marched against Kapranzine. The two forces met, and Kapranzine was defeated.

The baffled Monomotapa retired deeper into the country, and raised a still larger army, with which he returned and twice attacked the Christian camp, but on each occasion was beaten back. Then Manuza took possession of the zimbabwe, or great place, and was acknowledged as paramount chief by most of the surrounding clans.

On the 24th of May 1629 a document was drawn up, in which the new Kalanga ruler acknowledged himself a vassal of the king of Portugal. He promised to allow the missionaries to build churches and make converts anywhere in his country, to receive ambassadors without obliging them to go through humiliating ceremonies, to treat the captain of Masapa with great respect and to admit him to an interview at any time without a present, to open his country freely to

commerce, to protect traders, and not to shelter fugitive slaves. He undertook not to alienate gold mines to powerful chiefs, to allow mines of all descriptions to be sought for and worked by the Portuguese, and especially to enquire where silver was to be found, to inform the captain of Masapa of the places, and to allow the Portuguese to dig for it without any impediment. He engaged also to expel all the Mohamedans from his country within a year, and to permit the Portuguese afterwards to kill them and confiscate their property. He surrendered his claim to the lands at one time subject to the captain of Tete, and bound himself to send three pieces of gold to every new captain of Mozambique.

The whole army was drawn up, and the document having been read, Manuza was asked by the captain Serrão if he agreed to these conditions. Naturally he replied that he did. The friar Luis do Espirito Santo then wrote under it "Manuza, Emperor of Monomotapa," to which with his own hand he affixed a cross. Then followed the signatures of Manuel Gomes Serrão, chief captain in the war, Friar Gonçalo Ribeiro, vicar of Masapa, and sixteen other Portuguese. But it matters little with what formality the document was attested. It is evident that it was of very little value, for its terms—whether committed to writing or merely verbal—would be observed as long as Portuguese assistance was needed, and not a day longer.

A little later, eight months after he had been raised to the chieftainship, Manuza consented to profess Christianity openly, and was baptized with as much pomp as possible by the friar Luis do Espirito Santo, vicar of Tete. He received the name Philippe, which Portuguese writers thereafter used when mentioning him.

The government at Madrid regarded the document to which he had affixed his mark as of equal validity with an agreement between two European powers. In the opinion of the king the time had at last arrived when the mineral wealth of the Kalanga country was at his disposal, and pompous orders were issued to the viceroy of India to take

measures for the discovery and opening up of the gold, silver, and copper mines. He was also to build a stronghold in the best place to keep the Monomotapa in submission, and the old instructions were repeated to fortify the mouths of the Kilimane and the Luabo. As the Monomotapa was now a vassal, the presents formerly made for the privilege of carrying on commerce would no longer be required, and the money thus saved, together with the amount obtained for the lease of the islands of Angosha, could be used in defraying the cost of the fortifications. The three pieces of gold received as tribute were to be sent to the king, who would make a present to the Monomotapa in return. That potentate was to be invested with the order of Christ, and permission was given to him to trade in cloth on his own account to the value of three or four thousand maticals of gold.

These instructions were issued by the king in April 1631. But matters were not yet settled in the Kalanga country, and thus, even if he had possessed the means in men and money to carry them out, the viceroy was unable at the time to do anything. Manuza, after occupying the great place and receiving the homage of a number of clans, neglected to watch Kapranzine closely, and the result was a sudden surprise, in which nearly the whole of the Europeans and halfbreeds in the country and a great number of Bantu were killed, and the friars Luis do Espirito Santo and João da Trindade were made prisoners. The last named was badly wounded, but the barbarians subjected him to torture, and finally before he was quite dead threw him over a precipice where he was dashed to pieces. Luis do Espirito Santo, who was a native of Mozambique, was taken into Kapranzine's presence, and was ordered to make the usual obeisance. This he refused to do, as he said that to such homage God alone was entitled. He was then bound to the trunk of a tree, and stabbed with assagais till life was extinct. All the Bantu who were made prisoners were likewise put to death.

Kapranzine appeared now to be master of the situation. Many of the clans that had submitted to Manuza went over

to him, and the few Portuguese that remained—only twenty at Sena, thirteen at Tete, five at one trading station, and six and a Jesuit father at another—were too disheartened at the moment to attempt anything. The Tshikanga also, ruler of Manika, declared in favour of Kapranzine, and sent an army to support him.

Diogo de Sousa e Menezes was then captain of Mozambique, Dom Nuno Alvares Pereira having died. He called out every man that could carry an arquebus, and sailed with them to the Zambesi, where he raised a large force of Bantu warriors from those living on the island of Luabo. Having brought the disturbed districts adjoining Sena into subjection, he marched to Manika, where he overthrew the unfriendly Tshikanga, put him to death, and raised one of his brothers, who made a profession of Christianity and was baptized, to be chief as a vassal of Portugal. In the mean time the friar Manuel Sardinha, a man of great force of character, had got together an army of twenty thousand men, chiefly from the tribes along the Zambesi who were at feud with the Makalanga, and who were willing therefore to espouse the cause of Manuza. The two forces joined and marched against Kapranzine. The friar who was the chronicler of these occurrences relates that when they were setting out Philippe—as Manuza was called—looked up and saw a resplendent cross in the sky. Thereupon he sent for the father Manuel Sardinha, who was not with him at the time, but who also saw the cross on joining him. It was similar to that which appeared before the emperor Constantine, except that there were no words beneath it.

It may have been that some fleecy white clouds drifting across the deep blue African sky appeared to the heated imaginations of the friar and the Kalanga chief to assume the form of a cross, for it is not likely that a deliberate untruth was placed on record by the Dominican missionary who reported this event. Be that as it may, the apparition is said to have given such courage to the whole body of warriors, all of whom saw it, that they marched on with the

greatest confidence. On the feast of Saint John the two armies met, and a tremendous battle was fought, in which, according to the account of the Portuguese captain, the saint himself appeared and assisted the Christian cause. A brilliant victory was won, the carnage being so great that no fewer than thirty-five thousand of the enemy were slain. It will not do to be certain about the number of the killed, but the defeat of Kapranzine and his flight are assured facts.

Much booty in women, children, and cattle was obtained. Kapranzine's son of highest rank, a young boy, was among the prisoners. He was sent to Goa, where he was entrusted by the viceroy to the Dominican fathers, by whom he was baptized with the name Miguel, and educated and maintained by the royal treasury.

The hostile Monomotapa, however, was not utterly overthrown. He had still the support of a very able chief named Makamoasha and many others of less note, and he gave a great deal of trouble before the war was ended. It must be remembered that no force supplied by the Portuguese government, other than a few men from Mozambique, was in the field. The contest was between two members of the ruling family of the Kalanga tribe for the paramount chieftainship, and the weaker of the two was aided by a little band of Portuguese missionaries and other residents in the country. But these few white men and half-castes were able to turn the scale in favour of the chief whose cause they adopted, because they could obtain the service of warriors of other and braver tribes who would follow them out of a desire to wash their assagais in Kalanga blood, and because they could procure firelocks and gunpowder. In the final battle, which ended in complete victory for Manuza, as many as two hundred men on his side were armed with Portuguese weapons.

The Dominican friars regarded the contest as a holy war, for it was certain that if Kapranzine was successful their work in the Kalanga country would cease. The part taken by Manuel Sardinha has been related. Another friar, Damião

do Espirito Santo, was equally active in raising men, and it was by a force of six thousand robust warriors brought into the field by him that Philippe—or Manuza—was at length firmly secured in the position of Monomotapa. The Portuguese laymen and the mixed breeds served their own interests when aiding him, because by that means alone was it possible for them to continue there as traders. Their position at this time was better than at any previous period since the first occupation of the country, for Kapranzine, though in very reduced circumstances, was still alive, and Manuza, being dependent on them, was obliged to bestow whatever favours they chose to ask. The former trading stations were reoccupied, and new ones were established at Matuka, Dambarare, Chipiriviri, Umba, and Chipangura, situated in different parts of the country.

The Dominican missionaries also were able to extend their work greatly. A commencement was made with the erection of a church at Manuza's place of residence, in recognition of the help which he had received from the Almighty against his opponent, and the chief himself laid the foundation stone in presence of a great assembly of people. The friar Aleixo dos Martyres took up his residence there, and nine others of the same order came from Goa and were stationed at various trading places. The vicar general, Manuel da Cruz, removed from Tete to Matuka in the district of Manika, in order to be in a more central position. At Luanze a neat church was built, but at the other trading stations it was only possible to construct buildings of wattles covered with clay.

The Dominicans were naturally affected by the prostration of the wealth and power of Portugal, but they had a reserve force which supported them for a time. The most intelligent and energetic individuals in the kingdom, looking with despair upon the apathy and feebleness that had taken hold of the great mass of their countrymen, sought refuge in convents, where a life of activity and usefulness was still open to them. General poverty alone prevented these institutions being more generally resorted to. At a little

later date considerable numbers of Asiatics and Africans were admitted into the Dominican order, under the mistaken idea that they would be able to exert more influence in their respective countries than Europeans could, and then a failure of energy set in; but during the first half of the seventeenth century most of the missionaries south of the Zambesi were white men.

There were complaints against some of them that they were practically traders, but as a whole they worked zealously for the conversion of the Bantu, though at times they suffered even from want of food. Their observations upon the people among whom they were living are highly interesting. They state, for instance, that the Makalanga did not object to a profession of Christianity, but could not be induced to follow its precepts, especially in the matter of not taking more wives than one. The slight regard in which chastity of females was held surprised them, and they were particularly astonished that the men seemed almost indifferent to the misconduct of their wives. They noticed too that in war the men did not scruple to shield themselves behind their women, just as the Basuto often did in our own times in their conflicts with the Orange Free State. Seeing these things, they set their hopes chiefly upon the children, whom they took great pains to instruct.

A better opportunity than ever before was now offered to search for mines, and rich specimens of several metals were forwarded to Lisbon. In none of the records still preserved and available for use, however, is there any trace of the ancient underground workings having been discovered. To assist in the search a few miners were sent out at the cost of Dom Philippe Mascarenhas, though he protested against the charge as not being mentioned in his contract, and because he was then giving as much for the monopoly of commerce south of the Zambesi every year, namely forty thousand pardaos, as his predecessors had given for their whole term of office, besides maintaining the garrison of Mozambique, defraying all other expenses connected with the administra-

tion, and paying twenty per cent customs duties on the merchandise he imported from India.

The government at Madrid was of course highly elated with the prospect of wealth, and the most fantastic schemes were devised for opening up the country. Colonisation even was to be undertaken on a large scale. Thus, on the 24th of February 1635 the king wrote to the viceroy that two hundred soldiers and two hundred families of colonists would be sent from Portugal that year to settle along the Zambesi, and that others would follow with every fleet. They were to be accompanied by physicians, surgeons, women and girls from charitable institutions, and mechanics of all kinds, even to a gun founder. More Dominican and Jesuit missionaries would also proceed to the country, as well as some Capuchins. Two hundred mares would be sent, that horse-breeding might be carried on. A large quantity of artillery and other material of war would also be forwarded. On reading documents like this, so absurd do they appear from the condition of Portugal at the time, that one is inclined to doubt whether they were really intended to be serious state papers, or whether they merely represented the day dreams of children. At any rate the whole scheme came to nothing.

At the same time the viceroy was directed to have the search for mines carried on diligently, and to change the method of government of South-Eastern Africa. He was to appoint a governor of Monomotapa, subordinate to himself, and a castellan of Mozambique, subject to the governor. The system of carrying on trade was also to be altered. For a long time the king and his court had been endeavouring to devise some means of recovering the commerce of India from the English and Dutch, and in 1629 and following years an effort had been made to form a powerful Company for the purpose, in which the national treasury was to be the principal participant, and the cities of Portugal and India, as well as individuals, were to be shareholders. There was to be a chamber in Goa to manage local matters, but the controlling power was to be vested in a board of directors at

Lisbon. The effort to form such a Company, however, had failed; and now the king instructed the viceroy to throw open the commerce of South-Eastern Africa to all his subjects upon payment of customs duties. This order for some unknown reason was not carried into execution.

The subject of fortifications was also dealt with. In 1632, owing to a report that the English were fitting out an expedition to survey the East African coast, the king announced that a couple of small vessels would be sent from Lisbon to Sofala with men and munitions of war to protect that place, and that the outgoing fleet would convey reinforcements to Mozambique. It had become a custom to employ convicts in oversea service, so that by emptying the prisons a few men could be had at any time. But Sofala remained without a garrison, notwithstanding this announcement. A couple of years later an engineer named Bartholomeu Cotão was sent with a few assistants from Lisbon, some Indian carpenters were despatched from Goa, and at last a small fort of stakes and earth was constructed at Kilimane. This was the most that could be done, but in the king's letter of the 24th of February 1635 the viceroy was instructed to fortify Sofala strongly and station a garrison of two hundred soldiers there, and also to cause the mouths of the Zambesi to be well protected with defensive works. Such instructions, it must be repeated, were altogether illusory.

A report upon the condition of the country at this time, to be found in manuscript in the library of the British Museum, is particularly interesting, from the care which was taken in its preparation. It was drawn up in 1634 by order of the count of Linhares, viceroy of India, by his secretary Pedro Barreto de Rezende, who had visited the places he describes, and it was submitted for revision to Antonio Bocarro, keeper of the archives at Goa, before it was sent to King Philippe III of Portugal.

Sofala is described in it as having a square fort of stone thirty feet in height, with circular bastions at the corners,



PHOTOGRAPH OF PLAN OF SOFALA. Digitized by Google

and nine small pieces of artillery on the walls. It was without other garrison than the captain and his servants, and had no stores either of provisions or materials of war. In the village adjoining it three married and two single Portuguese resided, who with their slaves and a few mixed breeds were its only defenders in case of war. The fort and village were on an island at high tide, formed by the river and a broad trench, as shown in the plan accompanying the description; but at low tide the trench was dry. A Dominican friar resided in the village, but there were very few Christian natives. The only commerce carried on was in ivory and ambergris. The Kiteve, in whose dominions the fort was situated, had ten or twelve thousand warriors at his command, but was in general friendly to the Portuguese, and on payment of the usual quantity of merchandise allowed them to trade in freedom and safety.

Sena was a much more important place, though the old fort was out of repair and almost destroyed. There were thirty married Portuguese and mixed breeds in the village, who owned a large number of slaves, and there were no fewer than four churches, with religious of the Dominican order and the Company of Jesus. The principal building was the factory, which was under a tiled roof. It was a great warehouse, in which the goods of the captain of Mozambique were stored, and where merchandise was sold wholesale to the traders who traversed the country. There were two dwelling houses under tiles, all the others being thatched. Along the river up and down were great tracts of land, occupied by fully thirty thousand natives, that had been assigned to individual Portuguese, who, however, did not derive much benefit from them, as most of the Bantu were disobedient. This system was in accordance with feudal ideas, the persons to whom the districts were assigned having extensive powers wherever the natives were submissive, but being themselves vassals of the captain of Sena. Among the owners of districts in this way was the Dominican order, whose claim was confirmed by the king in 1638.

At Tete there were twenty married Portuguese residents and a few halfbreeds, all living within a kind of fort, which consisted of a wall seven or eight feet high with six bastions, on which a few small pieces of artillery were mounted. They had many slaves under their control. Adjoining Tete were lands occupied by about eight thousand Bantu, parcelled out among individual Portuguese, like those connected with Sena.

Scattered over Manika and the country of the Monomotapa were numerous so-called forts, which were really only palisaded enclosures or earthen walls, occupied by traders and their servants. At most of these Dominican friars also resided, who occupied themselves with the conversion of the Bantu. By the king's orders this field was open to them alone, though the Jesuits, who occupied Kilimane and the country to the northward, were permitted to have an establishment at Sena, and often evaded the command and stationed missionaries with the Makalanga. By a royal order the Dominicans were entitled to tithes in the country south of the Zambesi. The Jesuits had a large estate assigned to them on the island of Luabo, between two mouths of the great river, which was regarded as being within their sphere of action. The only soldiers in the whole country were thirty men who accompanied the Monomotapa wherever he went, nominally as a body-guard to protect him and add to his dignity, really, it may be believed, to keep watch upon his movements.

There were still a good many Mohamedans scattered about, and they were regarded by the Portuguese as in general irreconcilable enemies. Those on the island of Luabo were said to be behaving well, but those in the Monomotapa's territories had aided Kapranzine, and after his defeat were reduced to abject circumstances. It had not been found possible to expel them.

The only courts of law open to Portuguese subjects in the country south of the Zambesi at this time were those of the captains of Sofala, Sena, and Tete. These officials were appointed by the captain of Mozambique, who selected them

from the circle of his friends more to promote his interests in trade and to ward off hostilities with the natives whenever they could do so, than with an eye to their qualifications as magistrates. Under these circumstances it cannot be supposed that justice was at all times administered. There was, however, a right of appeal from the sentences of the captains to the judge at Mozambique, which may have prevented gross abuses.

This is the picture of Portuguese South Africa given by the most competent writer of his day, and certainly it differs greatly from that presented by the royal despatches.

Some wrecks which took place on the South African coast during these years furnish matter of sufficient interest to be preserved in history. That of the *São João Baptista* in 1622, and those of the *Nossa Senhora da Atalaya* and the *Sacramento* in 1647, have been referred to by me at sufficient length in a chapter upon the Xosa tribe in another volume; but two others remain, the narratives of which may here be given.

On the 4th of March 1630 the *São Gonçalo*, commanded by Captain Fernão Lobo de Menezes, sailed from Goa for Lisbon. On the passage she became leaky, and in the middle of June put into Bahia Ferosa—Plettenberg's Bay as now termed—in a sinking condition, to be repaired. For this purpose some of her cargo was landed, and more would have been, if the officers had not shown themselves quarrelsome and incompetent for their duties. Some of the crew took up their residence on shore, but the greater number remained on board. Fifty days after her arrival in the bay the ship was lying at anchor off the mouth of the Pisang river when she was struck by a storm and driven ashore, one hundred and thirty-three persons perishing in the wreck. The captain, five friars, and about a hundred men were on land at the time, and fortunately they were able to collect a quantity of provisions and a good supply of carpenter's tools when the storm ceased. In anticipation of being obliged to remain there until the change of the monsoon in September

or October, they had made a garden, from which they obtained such vegetables as pumpkins, melons, onions, and cucumbers. From the bay they drew supplies of fish, and from the Hottentots, who were very friendly, they bartered a number of horned cattle and sheep for pieces of iron. They were thus enabled to put by much of the rice that had been landed before the wreck and such food in casks as drifted ashore, while they were building two large boats in which to make their escape.

The captain was old and feeble, so with his consent they elected Roque Borges to be their commander. There was plenty of good timber in the forest close by, and as much iron as they needed was obtained from fragments of the ship. For tar they used benzoin, recovered from the cargo, and mixed with the oil of seals, which they killed in great numbers on an islet off the mouth of the river. Having plenty of food they lived in comparative comfort, and they were not forgetful of the worship of God, for they built a chapel in which religious services were frequently held. Eight months passed away before the boats were completed and ready for sea. When all was prepared for sailing the friars erected a wooden cross on the site of their residence, and a rude inscription was engraved on a block of sandstone, recording the loss of the ship and the building of the pinnaces. Part of this stone was removed some years ago from the summit of a hill a little to the eastward of the mouth of the Pisang river, and is now in the South African Museum in Capetown.

Some of the people wished to proceed to Angola, others thought it would be better to return to Mozambique, so the two boats steered in opposite directions. The one reached Mozambique safely, the other after a few days fell in with the homeward-bound ship *Santo Ignacio Loyola*, and her people were received on board. But these were less fortunate than the others, for they perished when near their homes by the loss of the ship that had apparently saved them.

The wreck of the *Nossa Senhora de Belem* was in many respects similar to that of the *São Gonçalo*. Where every one, as in Goa at that time, regarded bribery and corruption as the natural means of acquiring wealth, even a ship could not be sent to sea in a condition fit for a long passage. She would be repaired with rotten timber, her caulking would be defective, her rigging and stores would be of an inferior description. Thus the *Nossa Senhora de Belem*, commanded by Captain Joseph de Cabreyra, sailed from Goa for Lisbon on the 24th of February 1635 shorthanded and quite unfit for navigation in stormy seas. As usual, a large proportion of those on board were negro slaves.

The ship soon became so leaky that it was with the greatest difficulty she could be kept afloat, and when she reached the South African coast the only hope of saving the lives of those on board was in running her ashore. Somewhere north of the mouth of the Umzimvubu river—the exact spot cannot be made out—she lay almost water-logged close to the coast, when a boat was got out, and the captain landed with a few men to look for a place where she could be beached with the least danger. Night came on, and some natives appeared, who attacked the little party, but they were easily driven away. In the morning those on board, fearing every moment that the ship would go down with them, waited no longer for the captain's signal, but ran her ashore, and fortunately for them she held together, so that no lives were lost.

Two hundred and seventy-two individuals, among whom were five friars, were now safe on land. For seventeen days they were engaged in getting provisions, tools, and other articles out of the wreck; then by an accident, either from the party that had been on board during the day having left a candle burning or a fire in the stove, she caught alight and the whole upper part was consumed. This, however, turned out to be an advantage rather than a misfortune, as an abundance of nails and other iron was now easily obtained from the charred timber.

There was much difference of opinion as to the best course to be pursued, but at length they agreed to build a couple of small vessels and try to get to Angola. There was a river close by that offered a favourable site for a shipyard, and plenty of timber was to be had in the neighbourhood, so on the 20th of July they set about the task. Soon afterwards they were cheered by the appearance of a cabra, that is the son of a mulatto by a black woman, who called himself a Portuguese, and in broken language told them that his name was Antonio and that he had been wrecked in the *Santo Alberto* and left there by Nuno Velho Pereira's party that went to the north more than forty years before, when he was a boy. He was now wealthy and a man of influence. He was accompanied by a chief with a band of attendants, with whom an agreement of friendship was made. Through Antonio's influence and assistance no fewer than two hundred and nineteen head of cattle were obtained in barter for pieces of iron, which not only furnished plenty of fresh meat for the time being, but abundance of biltong, or strips of dried flesh, for provisioning the boats. After a time the shipwrecked men suspected Antonio of hostility, and there was some trouble with the natives; but their wants had then been supplied, and they were too strong to be attacked.

Six months were occupied in building and fitting out the vessels, which were decked and of such beam that they could carry the whole of the people. They were provisioned with eighty small bags of rice and a quantity of biltong. On the 28th of January 1636 they sailed from the river, but found the weather rough on the coast, and during the second night after leaving one of them disappeared and was not seen again. The other, in which was Captain De Cabreyra, put into Algoa Bay on the passage, and forty-eight days after leaving the river reached Bengo Bay, close to the town of São Paulo de Loanda, with her provisions exhausted and without a drop of fresh water left. There, just in time, those on board were rescued from death by starvation and thirst, and soon afterwards they dispersed to different parts of the world.

In 1640 the revolution in Portugal took place which elevated the eighth duke of Bragança to the throne as King João IV. Margarida, duchess of Mantua, was then governing Portugal for Philippe III—the 4th of Spain,—and her court was almost entirely composed of Spanish grandees, who treated the Portuguese nobles with such disdain as to rouse their passion. The people were discontented, and attributed the poverty and distress they were suffering to the Castilian yoke which lay heavy upon them. Though under the same head for sixty years, they had never fraternised with the Spaniards, and the loss of their most valuable eastern possessions, which had been the result of the political union of the two countries, was ever in their minds.

The time was opportune for a revolution. The Catalans were in insurrection, and France could be depended upon to favour anything that would weaken the power of Spain. A number of Portuguese noblemen then conspired to eject the hated dynasty. On the 1st of December 1640 they seized the palace and forts in Lisbon and the Spanish armed ships in the Tagus, and made the duchess of Mantua a prisoner. A few of the Castilian officials were killed in the first moments of the rising, but most of them were merely placed in safe confinement. The duke of Bragança, though timid and half reluctant, had then no option but to ascend the throne, for he was the legitimate heir of the ancient kings, and his life would not have been worth a week's purchase if Philippe should recover his authority. On the 15th of December he was crowned in the cathedral of Lisbon, and the cortes, which met as soon as possible, unanimously took an oath of allegiance to him on the 19th of January 1641. The whole country declared in his favour, the Spanish garrisons were expelled, and Portugal again took her place among the nations of Europe as an independent power. War with Spain followed as a matter of course, but João IV found powerful allies among the northern rulers, his people sprang to arms, and he was able to preserve the throne on which his descendants sit to this day.

In India tidings of the successful revolution were received with the greatest joy. The silly orders of the Castilian monarchs sent through the regency at Lisbon, and the affectation of boundless wealth and numberless men being at the disposal of the viceroy, must have disgusted the officials everywhere. From the new monarch they had reason to expect instructions dictated by common sense, and indeed in his first letters to the viceroy he spoke plainly of his empty treasury and of the necessity there would be of observing the strictest economy in every part of his dominions. Then he was their own countryman, and blood cements loyalty.

Among the first of foreign powers to recognise him was the Republic of the United Netherlands, and on the 12th of June 1641 a truce for ten years was concluded between the two governments, in which, among other clauses, was one defining the Portuguese possessions in South-Eastern Africa that were thereafter to be respected by the Dutch. They were Mozambique, Kilimane, the rivers of Cuama, Sena, Sofala, Cape Correntes, and the adjacent rivers, by which were meant Inhambane and the bay of Lourenço Marques. This truce was broken a few years later through events that took place in Brazil, but while it was observed it was of much importance to the new king. It gave him sympathy and some practical assistance from the Dutch people in his struggle with Spain, and it freed the eastern possessions that were left to him from fear of attack, of which they had before been apprehensive. The king indeed was led even to hope that some of the ancient conquests, particularly Malacca, might be restored to Portugal. Still he was not without some uneasiness when he reflected upon the defenceless condition of his dominions on the borders of the Indian sea, the activity of the Dutch in that part of the world, and his inability to afford any assistance, owing to his empty treasury. He therefore instructed the viceroy to keep a close watch upon the movements of the Dutch, but to act with the greatest caution, and to avoid everything that might irritate or offend any one.

The measures adopted by the government of King João IV with regard to South-Eastern Africa were not productive of good, however, much as the more honest and sensible tone of his despatches is to be admired. In December 1643 commerce between Portugal and India was declared free and open to all his subjects, with the single exception of the trade in cinnamon, which was reserved as a royal monopoly. This, to Englishmen of the present day, will appear a liberal measure. But there are circumstances when the admission of all persons under the same government to equal commercial rights may prove utterly ruinous to the class that ought to be encouraged most, and it would have been so in this instance in the country south of the Zambesi if the existing contracts with the prospective captains of Mozambique had not prevented its coming into operation for several years, and if in the mean time other measures had not been adopted. This will be dealt with more fully in another chapter.

In 1644 the slave trade between Mozambique and Brazil was opened by individual adventurers with the king's permission and encouragement. In these days such traffic is justly regarded with the greatest horror, but during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries not a voice appears to have been raised against it. It certainly was not looked upon as cruel or immoral to remove negroes from an environment of barbarism to a condition of subjection to Christian masters. The system brought upon the lands to which the slaves were taken a terrible and perpetual punishment, which ought to have been foreseen, but was not, or at least was disregarded in the prospect of immediate gain. The proprietors of the prazos, or great estates, along the Zambesi had now a new source of wealth opened to them. Hitherto they had regarded the captives obtained in war and reduced to slavery as personal followers, and employed them as traders, soldiers, attendants, and so forth, he who had the greatest number being esteemed as the most wealthy and powerful. The negroes readily fell in with this system, which appeared to them natural and proper; and in general they were found

faithful. It gave them what they needed: some one to think for them, some one to direct and look after them.

But after 1644 all this was changed. The Batonga and Makalanga who were made captives were considered as worth so many maticals of gold a head, and any that the owners did not care to keep were sent to Mozambique for sale, to serve in ships like the less intelligent Makua, or to be conveyed to Brazil to work on plantations, in either case to be severed for life from early associations and companions. As time went on the abominable traffic grew larger and larger, until it became far the most important in money value of all the commerce of the Zambesi basin. There could be no extension of agriculture, no mining, no progress of any kind where it was so extensively carried on.

In 1644 there was a war between the Kiteve and a chief named Sakandemo, in which the Portuguese took part on the side of the former. The result was the defeat of Sakandemo, the baptism of the Kiteve with the name Sebastião, and his promise to regard himself thereafter as a vassal of Portugal. But conversions of this kind, however gratifying to the vanity of the Europeans, and especially of the clergy, were of no real value, and such promises of vassalage by men possessing any real power were not carried into practice.

The sparseness of the European population made the possession of the country extremely insecure, for no troops could be provided to guard it. But how or where could settlers be obtained? Not in Portugal, for there were much more attractive places than South-Eastern Africa before the eyes of the peasantry there. Not voluntarily in India, as had been proved by the viceroy's invitations and tempting offers to migrate having had no effect. And so they were sent involuntarily. After the middle of the seventeenth century what colonisation was effected on the banks of the Zambesi was largely the result of criminals being sentenced by the supreme court at Goa to become residents there. If morality before this had been low, hereafter it sank to a point seldom reached elsewhere by Europeans.

At this time our countrymen began to frequent the coast, as the Dutch, notwithstanding repeated orders to prevent them from trading with the natives, had previously done, and English adventurers soon became a source of much uneasiness to the government at Lisbon. The first difficulty connected with them occurred in 1650, when an English trading vessel arrived at Mozambique. Alvaro de Sousa was then captain, and finding that he could do a profitable business with the strangers, he purchased a quantity of goods from them, hoping that the transaction would never be discovered. When the head of the local government acted in this manner, it may well be believed that the subordinate officials and the residents in the village, who had the right of trading with the Bantu on the mainland, were equally dishonest. The matter came to the knowledge of the king, but the death of Alvaro de Sousa prevented the punishment that would otherwise have been inflicted upon him. Orders were again issued, strictly prohibiting commercial intercourse with strangers, who were to be permitted to take in fresh water and to purchase necessary refreshments, but nothing more.

On the 25th of May 1652 the Monomotapa Manuza—or Philippe—died. He had not renounced Christianity and had always kept on the best terms with the Portuguese, acknowledging himself a vassal of the king, protecting traders, and making numerous grants of prazos to individuals. He could not do otherwise while Kapranzine lived, nor while Kapranzine's son of highest rank, the heir to the chieftainship in the direct line, was practically a prisoner in Goa. This young man had entered the Dominican order, and applied himself most assiduously to study, so that, according to the chronicler, he was by his example the most powerful preacher in the country. In 1670 the general of the order sent him the diploma of Master in Theology, equivalent to Doctor of Divinity, and this man, born a barbarian, heir to the most important chieftainship in Southern Africa, died as vicar of the convent of Santa Barbara in Goa. Fiction surely has no stranger story than his.

Manuza's successor adhered to the old Bantu faith, and in consequence the Dominicans were in much distress, as their work seemed likely to be thrown back seriously. Great was the pleasure therefore which they felt when the new chief, under the teaching of the friar Aleixo do Rosario, announced his conversion, and requested to be baptized. His example was followed by a multitude of the sub-chiefs and others. On the 4th of August 1652 these were all received into the church, the Monomotapa taking the name Domingos and his great wife Luiza. The intelligence of this event created a joyful sensation in Europe. At Rome the master-general of the order caused special services to be held, and had an account of the baptism engraved in the Latin language on a bronze plate. At the Dominican convent in Lisbon there was a grand thanksgiving service, which was attended by King João IV and all his court, for the event was regarded as one of the greatest triumphs of Christianity, as well as a consolidation of Portuguese rule in South Africa.

Such an opinion, however, was altogether erroneous, for in this same year, 1652, the Dutch East India Company formed a settlement in Table Valley, which was destined to have a vastly greater effect upon the southern portion of the continent than the Portuguese occupation of the eastern coast, that had now lasted nearly a century and a half.



BAPTISM OF THE MONOMOTAPA.

Photograph from a picture in the Dominican House, Rome.

CHAPTER XVII.

WEAKNESS OF PORTUGUESE RULE IN SOUTH AFRICA.

KING JOÃO IV, the first monarch of the house of Bragança, died on the 6th of November 1656, leaving a son named Affonso, only thirteen years of age, heir to the throne. The queen dowager, a woman of unusual ability and force of character, then became regent, and held that office until the 21st of June 1662, when Affonso VI became king. His sister, Catherine of Bragança, only a few weeks before had been married to Charles II of England. A close connection between the two countries was thus commenced, which was of great advantage to Portugal by giving her assistance in her war with Spain, and which led some years later to important commercial arrangements. For more than a quarter of a century Spain strove to suppress what was termed at Madrid the rebellion of the duke of Bragança, but at length a series of victories gained by the Portuguese with the assistance of their foreign friends made the attempt hopeless, and on the 13th of February 1668 peace was concluded by a treaty in which the independence of Portugal under the sovereigns of her choice was fully recognised. The character of Affonso VI was a compound of imbecility and brutality: he was one of the most worthless individuals that ever sat upon a throne. On the 23rd of November 1667 he was forced into retirement, and his brother Dom Pedro, duke of Beja, became regent. Sixteen years later Affonso died, and the regent then became King Pedro II. The Portuguese regard him as one of the best and most prudent of their sovereigns, though there was nothing particularly brilliant or even enterprising in his nature.

During the seventeenth century a general disintegration of the Bantu tribes between the Zambesi and Sabi rivers was taking place, and individual Portuguese who were possessed of ability, though they were devoid of anything like high morality, were busily engaged in forming new clans under their own control. The process commenced when the legitimate Monomotapa Kapranzine was deposed, and it was furthered when the Tshikanga was defeated and slain. The Batonga along the Zambesi were the first to be influenced by it. They had no affection for the Makalanga rulers, nor had those rulers any attachment for them, so that Portuguese who performed any service for the Monomotapa could readily obtain from him grants of land more extensive than the largest county in England. The people on these lands as a rule submitted to the new head as long as he governed them in accordance with their ideas, and rebelled when he did not, but in the course of a few years his authority was usually firmly established. He was then to all intents and purposes a Kaffir chief, possessing absolute power over his people.

Father Manuel Barreto, superior of the Jesuit college at Sena, reported to the viceroy in 1667 that nearly the whole of the territory in the triangle formed by the river Zambesi, the sea coast, and a straight line drawn from Chicova to Sofala, was thus held by individual Portuguese, though many of its Batonga inhabitants were in rebellion. Some of the prazos, as the districts were termed, were, he said, the size of kingdoms, especially those held by Antonio Lobo da Silva, Manuel d'Abreu, André Collaço, and Manuel Paez de Pinho. The last named had among his subjects the whole of the old tribe of Mongasi. But Kaffir chiefs as they were, these men wished to be considered Portuguese subjects, and were ambitious of holding office and obtaining titles of distinction from the crown. They professed even to hold their prazos from the king under grants for three lives, on payment of quitrent and performing military service with their followers when called upon to do so. The whole of the quitrent, however, that flowed into the royal treasury from this source

amounted to little more than six hundred maticals of gold, or £268 2s. 6d., a year. The holders of the prazos were constantly quarrelling, and at times were even carrying on war with each other, but they were always sufficiently loyal to obey a call to arms from the king's representative. For a long time they formed the sole military force of the government.

Many of them amassed great wealth and lived in a style of barbaric splendour, but they were always exposed to the chances of war, for they had no protection beyond what they could supply themselves. On some of the prazos large buildings were erected, with lofty rooms and thick walls to keep out the heat, and their proprietors were noted for the most profuse hospitality to the strangers and travellers who occasionally visited them. Their tables were spread with vegetables and fruit of almost all varieties, grown in their gardens, with the flesh of domestic and wild animals, the costliest wines of Europe, and imported delicacies of every description. They were waited upon by numerous slaves, never moved from their premises except in a palanquin, and lived altogether in luxurious ease, the condition perhaps most respected by the natives around them. But such people were not colonists, nor did they set an example of morality that was worthy of being followed by their dependents.

After the Batonga territory was thus parcelled out, adventurers sought to get possession of prazos elsewhere, and many were acquired by purchase from the Monomotapa and from his subordinate chiefs. The adventurers did not scruple to use threats and commit acts of violence to obtain what they desired, until the Monomotapa became seriously alarmed. In 1663 he sent a petition to the king to provide him with a bodyguard like that supplied to his predecessor, in order that he might be protected from insult and wrong. The king instructed the viceroy to comply with his request, but after a long delay, in 1668 he replied that he could not do so for want of men. The king also directed that the prazos which had been obtained by violence or by purchase from those

who had no right to sell them should be restored to the Monomotapa, who was a Christian prince; and an officer named Francisco Pires Ribeiro was sent to enforce the order. But the power of the king proved too weak in South-Eastern Africa to carry out a measure like this, which was in conflict with the opinions of the Portuguese landholders. They would not admit that the Monomotapa was a Christian in anything but name, and instead of surrendering the prazos, they declared war against him.

The leader of this movement was a lawless individual named Antonio Rodrigues de Lima, who had previously been guilty of much misconduct. He and his associates got together an army of slaves and other dependents, with which they took the field. The Monomotapa assembled his forces and marched to meet them, but when the armies were near each other, his captains rose in rebellion, murdered him, and submitted to the Portuguese, offering to admit as their head any one whom the white people might choose to appoint. Had he been their legitimate ruler in the right line of descent they would probably have preferred to die for him, but as he was in their eyes only a usurper he could command neither devotion nor respect. The Portuguese thereupon raised a young man of the ruling family to be Monomotapa, expecting him to be a pliant tool in their hands, but he proved an able chief, and found means to make himself respected. To keep him in check, indeed, the government was obliged to send Antonio Lobo da Silva, the most powerful of all the prazo holders, to reside with him as the king's representative.

A condition of things in which mere adventurers, acting without authority from the nominal government, could appoint and depose chiefs of tribes at their will, and could establish themselves as practically independent sovereigns over great tracts of country, can only be described as one of anarchy. Father Manuel de Gouvea, of the Jesuit mission, wrote to the prince regent in 1673 that a military force of two hundred men was needed to restore order and compel

the lawbreakers to respect the rights of others, but the reply was that they could not be sent, as there were no means of meeting the expense. In 1675 a plan was devised in Lisbon which it was hoped might meet the difficulty. This was to send out orphan girls from charitable institutions, to give them prazos as dowries, and upon their marrying Portuguese to appoint their husbands to civil, judicial, and military offices. The eldest daughter was to inherit the estate, upon condition of marrying a Portuguese born in Europe, and in the same manner it was to descend to the next generation. After the death of the third proprietress it was to revert to the crown.

But this scheme could only be carried out on a very limited scale, and in places where the natives had lost all their former spirit. To acquire a prazo in the first instance a man needed knowledge of Bantu habits, a strong will, reckless daring, and power of governing others. He established his right, and his heirs, if they were at all capable, might succeed him. Certainly they never could command such devotion as the ancient hereditary chiefs, because the religious element of loyalty was wanting in their case, but as those chiefs had been displaced, and as the government of a strong man is willingly obeyed by the Bantu under such circumstances, they could remain the heads of clans. It was very different when a stranger, a woman too, was appointed to rule over the people of a district. They would not submit to such an innovation, and therefore the scheme could not be applied in many instances.

The prazos went on increasing until there were no fewer than eighty-five of them. In other words, there were eighty-five Bantu clans under Portuguese, Goanese, or half-breed chiefs, almost constantly at strife with each other. Most of them had native headmen, or petty chiefs, serving under them, through whom their orders were carried out. It was the ancient feudal system of Europe transplanted in Africa, but that system where the king was weakest and the barons most turbulent. There was still a Monomotapa, a Tshikauga,

and a Kiteve, ruling over remnants of once powerful tribes; but the individuals who held these titles were little more than puppets. They were generally regarded with distrust and suspicion, and the slightest offence was sufficient pretext for war against them. The power of the Portuguese in South Africa had never been so great before, but the power of the Portuguese government had never been so small.

In his report to the viceroy in 1667 Father Manuel Barreto described Sena as containing thirty houses occupied by Portuguese and many others; occupied by half-breeds. It was the principal place in the country, as the factory to which all the traders resorted was there, and its captain had greater power than any of the others, because with him rested decisions of peace and war. He was appointed by the captain of Mozambique. Tete contained forty houses of Portuguese and mixed breeds. Sofala was almost deserted, and no friar was then residing there. Its trade in gold was only five hundred pastas* a year, whereas nearly three thousand pastas a year were obtained at other places and exported through Kilimane. In the Monomotapa's country there were trading stations, with Portuguese captains, at Dambarare, Ongwe, Luanze, and Chipiriviri, and a captain with a considerable body of followers at the residence of the chief, to keep that barbarian in check. The three captains of Sena, Tete, and Sofala were still the only administrators of justice in the country, but they could be tried by the supreme court at Goa for pronouncing illegal sentences.

There were sixteen places of worship in the country. Of these, six belonged to the Company of Jesus, one—at Sena—was ministered to by a secular priest, and nine belonged to the Dominicans, though they had then only six missionaries in the field. The distribution of these places of worship was,

* The quantity contained in a pasta, or pasteboard case, is uncertain. The word is also used to signify a thin plate of metal, but evidently that is not what is meant here. Probably gold was kept in cases of a particular size, and the expression at the time would convey a definite meaning to those engaged in the trade.

nine in the lands occupied and ruled by Portuguese, two in Manika, and five in the country of the Monomotapa.

Corruption must have been prevalent everywhere, for Father Barreto states that even the office of ecclesiastical administrator at Mozambique was purchased with money. He laid oppression also to the charge of the highest officer in rank in East Africa. Trading privileges with the Bantu on the mainland north of the Zambesi had been granted by the king to the inhabitants of the island of Mozambique, in order to encourage people to settle there, but the captain had deprived them of their rights that he might secure the profit for himself. They were obliged to purchase merchandise from him at his own price, instead of importing it from India, and in the same way they could sell to no one but him.

Father Barreto was an enthusiast, who had day dreams of a great Portuguese empire in Africa, stretching from the Red sea to the Cape of Good Hope. He does not seem to have been aware that the Dutch had formed a settlement in Table Valley, or if he was, he ignored it as an obstacle to the extension of Portuguese authority. He speaks of the cruelty, rapacity, and lawlessness of the holders of the prazos then in existence, and fears that the wrath of the Almighty may be poured out on them for their sins. Yet he advises that they should be employed in conquering their Bantu neighbours, and that the system should be maintained until not only the whole of the mainland south of Abyssinia, but the island of Madagascar as well, was parcelled out in this manner. Then, indeed, there would be an empire surpassing the greatest in Asia. Then the natives could be compelled to wear cotton clothing and to dig for gold, and commerce would flourish and boundless wealth flow into the treasury of the king. As for mission work, it should be carried on with tenfold vigour. Instead of an ecclesiastical administrator, there should be an archbishop at Mozambique, with two or three suffragans and numerous zealous priests. Surely Cortes and Pizarro were more moderate in their schemes of con-

quest with slender resources than this Jesuit missionary at Sena.

As regular troops could not be provided to defend the country, the government at Lisbon was doing all that was in its power to promote colonisation. In 1665 an order was issued that no settler should be allowed to remove without special leave, and this was afterwards stringently enforced. In 1671 the prince regent instructed the viceroy to throw open the commerce of the Rivers to every one as soon as the contract then existing with the captain of Mozambique expired, principally with the object of inducing individuals to take up their residence in South-Eastern Africa, and in the following year this order was repeated, March 1673 being named as the date from which it was to have effect. It was anticipated that the volume of trade would be greatly increased by private competition, because the captains fixed very high prices for selling and very low ones for buying, so that there was little inducement to collect gold and ivory. It was thought also that a larger sum would be realised from customs duties, after all expenses were met, than was paid by the captain for the monopoly, and that the administration could be conducted in a more satisfactory manner.

The viceroy Luis de Mendonça Furtado, however, brought forward many objections to unrestricted trade, and suggested an alternative, which the prince regent left to his discretion to carry out. Accordingly, in 1673 the commerce of South-Eastern Africa was taken over by the state, to be carried on for the benefit of the royal treasury, and to be conducted under the direction of a council at Goa by a board of six members at Sena. It was about as clumsy and expensive a scheme as could well be devised, and it was made still more cumbersome by the conferring of extensive judicial power upon the board at Sena, some of whose members were ecclesiastics. Under the new system all persons employed received salaries, and the civil and military authority were separated. An officer named João de Sousa Freire, with the title of commander in chief, was appointed head of the

military branch of the government, with power to call out the residents in the villages and the holders of prazos with their retainers to perform service in war. One of his first acts was to get ready a force to attack the Monomotapa if the silver mines which were supposed to be known to that chief were not delivered to the Portuguese.

The aspect of affairs along the whole coast was at this time exceedingly gloomy. The weakness of the Portuguese was so apparent that the Mohamedans took courage, and in various places to the north attempted to recover their independence. In 1670 they even attacked Mozambique, and though they did not succeed in getting possession of Fort São Sebastião, they inspired great alarm everywhere. In 1673 Father Manuel de Gouvea, a member of the board of commerce at Sena, wrote to the prince regent that without five or six small armed vessels it would be impossible to trade to the north; but they were not supplied through want of means. Matters at length reached such a pass that the viceroy Luis de Mendonça Furtado, finding his despatches produced no effect, sent the Jesuit father André Furtado to Lisbon to represent that all East Africa must be lost unless a military and naval force to maintain Portuguese authority could be provided. North of the Zambesi the sheik of Pate and other petty rulers were in open rebellion, and south of that river the confusion and disorder caused by the jealousies and strife of the prazo holders were so great that—as one of the viceroy's advisers wrote—obedience to the government was regarded as a mere matter of courtesy.

The court at Lisbon was then compelled to make a supreme effort. In April 1677 Dom Pedro d'Almeida was appointed viceroy of India, and was directed to proceed to Goa and take over the administration, but very shortly afterwards to return to the rivers of Cuama to meet a force of six hundred soldiers that would leave the Tagus in five vessels in September. With these ships and men he was to restore order in East Africa, punishing the sheik of Pate first. During his absence from Goa the government there

would be carried on by a board acting with full power, so that his whole time and thought might be devoted to the duty specially assigned to him. He was to remain two years in Africa, and then place João de Sousa Freire at the head of the local government and proceed again to Goa. The board of administration there was directed to give him all the assistance possible during his absence, though he was to have no control over it. Dom Pedro carried out these instructions, and though he died before everything was satisfactorily arranged, he managed to bring the petty sheiks of the north to submission once more and to establish comparative order south of the Zambesi.

The method of conducting trade on account of the government proved a complete failure. The council at Goa commenced with debt, not only for goods purchased and vessels chartered, but for the payment of thirty thousand xerafins, or nine million reis, to each of the prospective captains of Mozambique in return for relinquishing their rights. The goods it purchased in India were often bad in quality and unsuited to the requirements of the Bantu. The persons employed as agents were careless and indifferent, the costs were great, and the returns too small to meet the salaries and other expenses. Under these circumstances in March 1680 the prince regent issued instructions that the affairs of the council were to be wound up, and that the commerce of the country south of the Zambesi was to be thrown open to all his subjects in Europe, Asia, Brazil, and Africa, upon payment of twenty per cent of the value of imports and exports as customs duties. The existing debts were to be a charge upon these duties.

When this order reached Goa a council of state was convened, and every member voted for suspending it until representations of the consequences could be made and fresh directions be given. But in February 1681 Francisco de Tavora was appointed viceroy, and was instructed to throw open the trade and to see that the Monomotapa was so treated as to preserve his friendship.

In September 1681 the new viceroy reached Goa. Soon afterwards he laid his instructions before the council, when it was decided that the prince regent's orders, issued after full deliberation and advice, must be carried out, no matter what the consequences might be. In November, therefore, a proclamation to that effect was issued, and the affairs of the board of commerce were placed in the hands of liquidators. Custom houses were speedily thereafter opened at the African ports, and every one was free to buy and to sell whatever he chose. In March 1682 Caetano de Mello de Castro was appointed governor and commander in chief of Mozambique and the Rivers, the name by which the territory south of the Zambesi and the Kilimane mouth was usually known. He was allowed a salary of eight thousand cruzados a year. With him were sent two or three hundred such soldiers as could be raised, to enable him to defend Fort São Sebastião and maintain his authority elsewhere, and he was particularly charged to see that the revenue was not defrauded by the system of unrestricted trade.

For a long time the government at Lisbon had been endeavouring to induce Portuguese men and women to settle in South Africa. In 1677 the troops that were sent out were accompanied by a few artisans and labourers, and by eight reclaimed women from a house of mercy, some of whom took up their residence at Mozambique and others on the bank of the Zambesi. After their arrival all trace of them is lost, but they can only have prospered in such pursuits as the former residents had followed. Nowhere in the world could a European labourer have been more out of place than in Portuguese South Africa, and as for mechanics, half a dozen masons and carpenters would have been too many for all the building that was to be done. There were in Goa a number of Portuguese and Eurasians sunk in the lowest depths of poverty, mere mendicants in fact, and it was under the consideration of the government to remove them to Africa to colonise the country. Common sense prevailed, however, and this most injudicious scheme was not carried out. And now

the same government that desired the increase of the European population adopted a commercial system under which the few white men in the villages and at the trading stations must be driven out.

Against all the advantages that are derivable from an Asiatic possession, one tremendous disadvantage must be set down: that its inhabitants may become entitled to privileges ruinous to their conquerors. In what remained of Portuguese Asia there were numerous mixed-breeds, and besides these a large class of Indian traders, commonly termed Canarins or Banyans. These people are among the keenest traffickers in the world, whether as merchants or as pedlars, and no white man can compete with them, as it costs them the merest trifle to live. They add nothing to the strength of a country, as they are wholly unfit to bear arms in war, and they contribute little or nothing to its revenue beyond what they pay in customs duties. They are the most dangerous of all immigrants into a territory with a warm climate, where equal rights when they are concerned can only mean the speedy removal or ruin of the European.

As soon as the commerce of South-Eastern Africa was open, the Canarins began to take part in it, and the inevitable result quickly followed. Within six years no fewer than seventeen Banyan houses of business—some of course very paltry establishments—were opened on the island of Mozambique alone, and the Portuguese trading community had dwindled to fifteen individuals. Sena and Tete were threatened with utter extinction as Portuguese villages, and the outlying stations were rapidly being lost to white men. The price of gold too had been raised by competition until there was no longer a fair profit to be gained on it.

The country was involved in other troubles as well. The prazo holders were discontented and sullen, foreseeing the loss of their means of acquiring wealth. Some of them had been obliged by the government to surrender estates obtained in an improper manner, and all of them resented recent legislation so keenly that they no longer troubled themselves

to search for gold, in consequence of which the quantity obtained was much less than formerly. Their turbulent and violent conduct was irritating the Monomotapa, and war was constantly expected. The customs dues collected were insufficient to defray the charges of the administration, paltry as these were, and no means could be devised to increase the revenue. It was indeed in contemplation to collect ivory in payment of overdue quitrent, and to levy a yearly poll tax of a matical of gold upon every native, but a little reflection showed both these schemes to be impracticable. If the prazo holder would not pay his quitrent in the normal manner he would not pay it in ivory, and as for the poll tax, the natives would certainly flee from Portuguese jurisdiction rather than submit to it.

King Pedro II took all these circumstances into consideration, and on the 20th of March 1690 issued orders that free trade in South-Eastern Africa was to cease at once. An attempt was to be made to form a Company to carry it on, and in the mean time the royal treasury would undertake it. These orders preserved the country for the Portuguese crown, but the Banyans had got a hold upon the commerce which could not be entirely destroyed until 1783, when they were expelled from the country south of the Zambesi.

Caetano de Mello de Castro was succeeded as governor and commander in chief by Dom Miguel d'Almeida, whose term of office expired in 1688. Thomé de Sousa Correa, a very diligent and upright man, followed, and to him was entrusted the task of directing the commerce on behalf of the king. This he did with such care and ability that it yielded a considerable profit above all expenses, though the villages did not fully regain their European inhabitants.

Several years elapsed before a Company could be formed with sufficient capital to undertake the trade. Some persons in India first subscribed for a number of shares, and a provisional charter was drawn up there, which was sent to Lisbon and altered by the king in council. As finally arranged, its principal clauses were: that any one in Portugal

or India could subscribe for shares; that the royal treasury was to take part in it to the value of the vessels then engaged in the commerce and of the merchandise on hand; that every viceroy during his whole term of office should be a shareholder to the extent of fifteen thousand xerafins, which sum was to be deducted from the first payment of his salary and repaid to him when received in like manner from his successor; that the management of business should be entrusted to a board of five directors to be selected in the first instance by the viceroy from the largest shareholders, and afterwards, as vacancies occurred, by the viceroy from a double list of names presented to him by the remaining directors; that the Company was to pay the same customs duties as individual traders had paid; that it was to pay yearly to the royal treasury fifty thousand cruzados towards the cost of the naval defence of India, thirty thousand cruzados, being the amount formerly paid by the captains of Mozambique for a monopoly of trade south of the Zambesi, and three thousand cruzados, being the amount formerly paid by the same official for a monopoly of the trade of the islands of Angosha; that the Company was to have an absolute monopoly of all the trade from Mombasa to Cape Correntes; that it should be entirely commercial in its character and not interfere with the different governments; and that the charter was to hold good for twelve years, with three years notice thereafter before it could be cancelled.

The chartered Company thus formed came into existence in 1697, but the amount of capital subscribed was too small to enable it to carry on the commerce of South-Eastern Africa successfully, and the obligations imposed were too heavy for it to bear, so after a feeble attempt during the next three years to maintain itself, in 1700 it was dissolved, and the trade was again undertaken by the royal treasury. Just at this time expectations of great wealth, derived from reports of the richness of the pearl fisheries and from specimens of ore sent to Lisbon, were cherished by the king and his court, so that the failure of the Company and the reversion of the trade

to the treasury were not regretted. King Pedro indeed believed for a while that the Rivers were the most valuable oversea possession in his dominions. In this strain he, the lord of Brazil, which had then already begun to pour its wealth into the mother country, wrote of them, regretting only his want of means to develop their immense resources at once; but, as on so many occasions before, high hopes regarding South African treasures were doomed to end in bitter disappointment.

The disturbed condition of the country was unfavourable to the progress of mission work, though the decadence of the ruling Bantu families made the conversion of the people more easy than before. The Jesuits were strong in Mozambique, where they had a large convent, and where they were often called upon to aid the government with advice in political and commercial matters. At one time even the superintendence of the repairs of the fortress was entrusted to them by the king, who believed that they would be more likely to see the work carried out properly than the civil or military officials. At Sena they had an establishment, and here also their services were requisitioned by the government for many purposes unconnected with religion. They were the most refined and most highly educated men of the day, so that they were naturally regarded as the most competent to give advice in all matters. Their reports are the clearest, best written, and far the most interesting documents now in existence upon the country. Compared with the ordinary state papers, they are as polished marble to unhewn stone.

In 1697 the Jesuits established a seminary at Sena for the education of the children of the Portuguese in the country and the sons of native chiefs. This institution was aided by the state, and wealthy traders and prazo holders contributed largely to its support. At Tete they had also a mission, and further several stations along the river where they were favoured by prazo holders, and could thus remain notwithstanding the claim of the Dominicans to that territory as the sphere of labour assigned to them by royal order. Though

the Jesuits were so active, they reported at a later date that their work among the Bantu at these places was almost fruitless. They had no difficulty in inducing people to call themselves Christians, but they could not persuade them to change their mode of living, to abandon polygamy, or to observe the ordinances of the church.

The order of Saint John of God had not yet sent any of its members to the Rivers, though in 1681 the hospital at Mozambique was entrusted to its care. This order was founded purposely to attend upon the sick, and its members were trained as hospital nurses are now. Previous to this date the sick sailors and soldiers at Mozambique had no other attendants than slaves, who acted under direction of the surgeons; but henceforward they were tenderly looked after. Nearly half a century later a shipwrecked Dutch traveller, named Jacob de Bucquoi, who was for several weeks an inmate of this hospital, wrote of it in terms of unbounded admiration. He said that no one, however rich, could be cared for and tended better than the sick were there, without any exception, whether they were Portuguese or strangers.

The Dominican convent at Mozambique was still the principal station of that order in South-Eastern Africa, but the country south of the Zambesi was the field in which most of its missionaries laboured. Not long after the baptism of the Monomotapa Domingos their zeal began to flag. In the time of their prosperity, as is often the case with men in other pursuits, the friars did not display the great qualities which characterised them during the period of trial. Some of them fell into habits of indolence, and others into a spirit of indifference. Clearly the introduction of foreign blood and the condition of the mother country were producing their natural effects. The ecclesiastical administrator at Mozambique, though he had not the same control over members of religious associations as over secular priests, threatened to introduce some other order, and actually proceeded to Goa with that object. There, however, he was induced by the Provincial of the Dominicans to desist from his purpose, on

condition that a commissary and visitor should be sent at once to the country south of the Zambesi, and that some active missionaries should accompany him.

Friar Francisco da Trindade was appointed commissary, and brought five associates with him. One of these, the father João de São Thomé, he stationed at Sofala, another, the father Damaso de Santa Rosa, he stationed with the Monomotapa, the third, the father Diogo de Santa Rosa, he directed to renew the work that had been abandoned at Masapa, the fourth, the father Jorge de São Thomé, he directed to do the same at Ongwe, and the fifth, the father Miguel dos Archanjos, he sent to the Kiteve country to establish a mission. The commissary was a man of great activity, and during the time that he had the oversight of the mission everything went on well. He resided first at Sena, and made himself master of the Bantu dialect spoken there, in which he prepared a catechism and another religious book termed a confessionario. He then proceeded to Tete, studied the dialect used by the clans in that part of the country, and translated his catechism into it. One of the sons of the Monomotapa came under his influence, and was baptized and trained by him. This youth was afterwards sent to Goa, where he entered the Dominican order, and became known as the friar Constantino do Rosario. In the next chapter it will be necessary to make a better acquaintance with him.

This period of activity, however, did not last long. There were energetic men of the Dominican order in South Africa at the close of the seventeenth century, but the spirit of languor in which Portugal and her foreign possessions were steeped embraced the great body of the friars also. Further many of them were Asiatics and Eurasians, and a few were Africans not half weaned from another creed, all quite unfit to carry on mission work unless under the close supervision of white men. Under these circumstances, though baptisms were numerous real converts were few. In the interminable feuds of the country stations were often destroyed, as Ongwe

and Dambarare—the latter the principal gold market at the time—were in 1692. In 1696 Sofala was attacked by a powerful clan, which was repulsed, but a large portion of the back country was closed to Europeans during the next thirty-three years, and the station at the Kiteve's kraal had to be abandoned. Without protection, without homes—much less church buildings,—the missionaries could have done very little except in the villages even if their zeal had not passed away.

It is impossible to ascertain how far westward missionaries had penetrated the country by this time, because they had no means of determining longitudes, and no descriptions of their travels are extant from which their routes can be traced. As they could not erect substantial buildings there are no ruins to mark the limits of their wanderings, and the old names of the places where they laboured are known no more. On the actual bank of the Zambesi they had reached a point as far west as the present station of Zumbo, but it is exceedingly improbable that they had got farther. About seventy miles north-east of Buluwayo, in some ruins called by the present natives Umtungala ka Mambo, which date from a time far earlier than the appearance of the Portuguese in South Africa, a few years ago a seal was found bearing the name Bernabe de Ataide encircling the symbol I H S, but it is quite as likely to have been carried there as an ornament or charm by some native as to have been lost there by the missionary who once owned it. Neither the Dominicans nor the Jesuits until our own times ever explored the country farther than they did during the seventeenth century.

At this period and later when dealing with the Portuguese in South Africa one is never certain whether he is recounting the deeds of Caucasians, of Asiatics, of Africans, or of mixed breeds, unless he can trace their origin, which is not always possible. An individual with the name of a European grandee was as likely as not to be a negro or a half-caste from Goa. Who, for instance, would recognise a son of the Kiteve under the name Dom Antonio Lançarote, who in 1681 applied t

the king for permission to remove from Goa to Africa? If deeds performed are worthy of mention they should be related, but it would be more satisfactory if the nationality of the actors could be stated as well.

Since the accession of the house of Bragança to the throne of Portugal the closest friendship with England had existed, still English ships were causing much trouble and anxiety to the authorities on the eastern coast of Africa, though the British government was in no way responsible for what was being done by them. Some of these ships were avowedly pirates, similar to those that infested West Indian waters, that plundered and scuttled vessels under every flag but their own. Their crews were composed of ruffians of every maritime nation, though the vessels were British built, and all the names of the officers that are known are English. Delagoa Bay and the ports on the coast of Madagascar afforded them convenient places for repairing, provisioning, and otherwise fitting out for cruises in search of booty. These pirates were for many years a cause of terror to navigators in the eastern seas, though they only murdered the crews of their prizes when they were apprehensive of danger to themselves should their prisoners live. Sometimes a ship left India, and was not heard of again for years. Such was the fate of the *Nossa Senhora da Ajuda*, which was captured by two pirates off the African coast, when all on board were put to death except one Malay boy who was kept as a slave. In 1682 these same pirates put into Mozambique, where one of them was wrecked, and the Malay gave information of the destruction of the Indiaman and also of a vessel bound from that island to Brazil with slaves, which had afterwards been captured. Fort São Sebastião was at the time provided with a fairly strong garrison, so the rovers were seized and sent to Goa for trial.

Another class was composed of ships that visited the coast for trading purposes in defiance of the English East India Company. They were either not provided with clearance papers from any English port, or they had papers giving

some destination beyond the limits assigned in the East India Company's charter, so that in each case they were liable to be seized wherever there was sufficient force to capture them. Except at Mozambique no such force existed on the south-eastern coast of Africa or on the shores of Madagascar, which they therefore frequented. It had been the custom for nearly a century and a half to send a pangayo occasionally from Mozambique to Inhambane and Delagoa Bay to barter ivory from the natives, and in 1685 one left for that purpose. Upon her return, Domingos Lourenço, her master, reported that at Delagoa Bay he had found five English trading vessels provided with merchandise of a better quality than his, and that they had bought all the ivory and ambergris in the surrounding country.

On the 6th of August 1686 the governor of Mozambique, Dom Miguel d'Almeida, and his council met to consider this matter. The council consisted of the lieutenant-general Francisco d'Aviles Ramires, the castellan Paschoal d'Abreu Sarmiento e Moraes, the factor João Machado Sacoto, the rector of the Jesuit college Father Manuel Freire, the vicar of the parish church Father Domingos Dias Ribeiro, and the superior of the Dominican convent Friar João da Magdalena. The governor and council unanimously resolved not to send a pangayo to Delagoa Bay that year, because most probably English ships would continue to frequent that port and she might be robbed or insulted by them, and further because there would be little or nothing to obtain in barter, as that part of the country had been thoroughly cleared of its marketable produce.

This resolution was communicated to Dom Rodrigo da Costa, governor-general of India, who overruled it, and gave directions that a pangayo should be sent to the bay again, even at a pecuniary loss, in order that the English might not take possession of it under the pretext that it was neglected by the Portuguese. Our countrymen continued to trade there, and from an account given by one of them, Robert Everard by name, it is seen that they set about their

business with characteristic energy. Everard was in Delagoa Bay in 1687, in the ship *Bauden*. They had materials ready on board, and put together a small vessel, which was sent up and down the coast to trade for ivory. At the bay itself they obtained only two tons until some chiefs went on board, whom they put in irons and detained until more was brought for sale. One day a small boat arrived with three Englishmen in her, who had formed part of the crew of a trading vessel like the one they had put together. This vessel had been wrecked on the coast, and the boat's crew had suffered greatly from hunger before they reached the bay, for when they went ashore to try to get food the natives robbed them of their clothing and would give them nothing to eat. The *Bauden* lay there at anchor three months, and then sailed for Madagascar.

In 1688 Delagoa Bay was visited and roughly surveyed by the Dutch galiot *Noord*. An English trading vessel was lying there at the time, and also a Portuguese pangayo from Mozambique. The English had put up a tent for trading purposes on one of the islands, and the Portuguese had constructed a temporary lodge for the same purpose near the mouth of the Manisa river. So matters continued until the end of the century, vessels of both nations frequenting the bay; but then the Portuguese abandoned it for many years. Their pangayo was seized when at anchor by a pirate ship that sailed in under French colours, and was plundered and destroyed, though most of her crew managed to escape to the shore. Then the effort to carry on a profitless and dangerous trade was given up, and the next century was far advanced before the Portuguese flag was again seen anywhere on the mainland south of Inhambane.

CHAPTER XVIII.

EVENTS DURING THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

DURING the eighteenth century the history of Portugal presents hardly any subject of interest except the close commercial connection of the country with Great Britain, the growth of Brazil, and the extraordinary vigour of the celebrated minister Sebastião José de Carvalho e Mello, better known in his later life as marquis of Pombal. King Pedro II died on the 9th of December 1706, and was succeeded by his son João V, a monarch of no importance, who reigned forty-four years. On his death in 1750 the throne was ascended by his son José I. He chose as his prime minister the man whose commanding intellect and utter fearlessness made the country for a brief space a powerful factor in the affairs of Europe, and whose enmity to the Jesuits has given him a world-wide reputation. The marquis of Pombal, however, regarded Portuguese India and Eastern Africa as of so little value that he did nothing to raise those dependencies from their state of depression, and it is therefore unnecessary to relate his actions here. Upon the death of José I, 24th of February 1777, and the fall of the great minister from power immediately afterwards, Portugal at once sank again into her former obscurity. The king, having left no son, was succeeded by his daughter Maria Francisca, who was married to her uncle, her father's younger brother, and he was crowned with her as Pedro III. Both of them were of weak mind, and after her husband's death Queen Maria Francisca became so imbecile that it was necessary for her son Dom João to carry on the government some

years before 1799, when he assumed the title of regent. In November 1807 he with his family and his demented mother abandoned Portugal and sailed for Brazil in an English man-of-war, just before the entry of the French army under Marshal Junot into Lisbon. Such being the condition of the government at home, progress in a distant dependency with no special advantages was out of the question.

It may be asserted indeed that from the beginning of the eighteenth century until our own times the Portuguese power in South Africa was almost as unsubstantial as a shadow, and that it continued to exist at all was due to the breaking up of the large Bantu tribes and the perpetual wars in which the petty sections were thereafter involved, when the aid of a few Europeans was usually sufficient to turn the scale of victory in favour of any chief whose cause they espoused. Sometimes, however, Portuguese prazo holders were defeated and driven from their estates, which were afterwards occupied by independent Bantu chiefs. These men were generally so jealous of each other that union for common defence, except under extraordinary circumstances, was next to impossible. The country thus presented politically as continual a change as the colours and forms in a kaleidoscope, and if it were possible to do so, it would be as useful to describe in minute detail the varying appearances of the one as of the other. A few instances may be given as specimens of the whole, and a single short chapter will afford ample space for a recital of all that is worth knowing of the transactions of the Portuguese in South Africa during the eighteenth century.

In 1701 Sena and Tete narrowly escaped destruction in a general rising of the Bantu caused by the oppressive conduct of the commander in chief José da Fonseca Coutinho. He had attacked the most powerful native chief in his neighbourhood, defeated him and put him to death, and then elevated his brother to the vacant place. Having been so far successful, he proceeded to conduct himself in such a highhanded manner that his own people rose in revolt. Fifty

soldiers were sent from Mozambique to the Rivers to support the king's authority, but the insurrection spread. In 1708 the captain Antonio Simões Leitão was killed in battle. His successor Rafael Alvares da Silva managed, however, more by concession than by force, to arrange terms of peace. This was hardly effected when a difficulty arose between the captain of Tete and the chief of Inyabanzo, who was nominally a vassal of the Portuguese government. In 1710 the chief overran the whole of the prazos connected with Tete, added them to his own domain, and left the white men the village only.

In 1717 a prazo holder named Pedro Carvalho openly rebelled, and many others refused to pay their quitrents. Some were at war with others, just as if they had been Bantu chiefs. One of the most powerful among them, named Manuel Gonçalves Guião, pursued his opponent into Sena, where he not only caused a great many negroes to be killed, but destroyed and burned much property. He even attempted to prevent the newly appointed captain, who arrived while he was there, from entering upon his duty. The government was so powerless that it did not so much as endeavour to punish this ruffian, but tried instead to conciliate him, and actually held out inducements of rank and office if he would conduct himself as a dutiful subject.

In 1722, in return for assistance against his enemy, a chief named Masisa affixed his mark to a document ceding a tract of land about sixty-five miles in length along the coast opposite the Bazaruta islands.

In 1735 a trader at Sofala, named João Pires, went into the interior with a party of slaves carrying goods for barter. On his way he met a son of the Kiteve with a band of warriors marching towards the territory of a chief with whom they were at war, and through whose lands Pires wished to pass. The young chief stopped him, and showed such enmity that the slaves fled through fear, when Pires was murdered and his goods were seized. As soon as his widow heard of this, with the consent of the captain of Sofala she raised an

army and made war upon the Kiteve. After conquering several of his sub-chiefs she directed her march towards his great place, but he became terrified, and to appease her sent her the head of her husband's murderer and offered to cede a valuable district named Chironde to her. She accepted the offer, peace was made, and the district remained Portuguese territory for more than a century afterwards.

In 1753 the Portuguese of Mozambique were defeated in an engagement with a native tribe on the mainland, when about half of the whole military force they could muster perished. This prevented them for several years from assisting their countrymen south of the Zambesi, and in consequence many prazos were lost in the interminable feuds of that period.

In 1760 a chief named Beve, in return for assistance in a war with his neighbour, ceded a large tract near Tete, which had been possessed once before, but had been lost. It was partitioned out again as prazos.

In 1774 the country of the Kiteve was overrun by a horde from the interior, and the only Portuguese trading station in it except Sofala was destroyed.

In the early years of the century by express order of the king an effort was made to support the Monomotapa, and a Dominican friar with a captain and twenty-four soldiers as a bodyguard accompanied him wherever he went. He was now always of necessity a nominal Christian, for the Portuguese would not acknowledge the right of any one to fill the office unless he had been baptized, and without their assistance he was helpless. The name of the man who held the position at this time was Pedro. But little more than the title remained to him, for the old tribe was broken into fragments, each absolutely independent of the others. The succession had of late been nearly always disputed, and the majority of those who claimed to be the heirs had met violent deaths. A clan under a chief named Tshangamira was much more powerful than the one that remained to the Monomotapa. In a war between them a considerable number

of Portuguese were made prisoners by Tshangamira, and they were kept under guard for several years, until they were finally ransomed by the ecclesiastical administrator of Mozambique.

Under such circumstances it might reasonably be thought that a cession by the Monomotapa of territory at a distance from his own kraal would not have been regarded as of much value. Yet the court at Lisbon attached considerable importance to a grant of silver mines made by the Monomotapa Pedro, and desired to have it confirmed by his son the friar Constantino do Rosario, who was resident in India. Friar Constantino had not conducted himself to the satisfaction of the vicar general of his order, and in consequence had been deprived of his habit and banished to Macao, but in 1709 by the king's instructions had been brought back to Goa and taken again into his convent, where the viceroy was directed to see that he was treated with every courtesy. In 1711 Pedro died, leaving no other son than Constantino; and a brother of the deceased chief, termed by the Portuguese Dom João, took possession of the vacant place. Thereupon the mother of the friar sent him word of what had happened, and desired him to return and claim his inheritance.

The king was of opinion that if Constantino was made Monomotapa, great advantages would accrue to the Portuguese, as he had so long been accustomed to live as a European that his fidelity could be depended upon, and the silver mines, wherever they were, would be secured. He therefore directed the friar Francisco da Trindade, who was then in Lisbon, to proceed to Goa in the first ship that sailed for that port, and to conduct his former pupil from the convent of our Lady of the Rosary to Sena, where the Portuguese were to receive him as the legitimate chief. He was to be treated with such kindness and courtesy as to call forth his lasting gratitude. Constantino, however, had no desire to place himself in such a difficult and dangerous position as that he was invited to strive for, and in 1713 he

wrote to the king that he was a professed friar of the Dominican order and had abandoned all hopes of worldly advancement. So he remained at Goa, and the prospect of acquiring silver mines through his agency had to be given up. The king made him an allowance of two hundred xerafins a year from the royal treasury for his maintenance, and orders were issued that he was to be treated with all possible respect.

Six years later Friar Constantino do Rosario appears again in the records of India. He had misconducted himself once more in such a way as to incur the displeasure of the vicar general, and had been threatened with imprisonment. Thereupon, on the 21st of April 1720, the king issued instructions that he was to be sent to Lisbon, without being permitted to land at Mozambique on the way.

The system of carrying on trade, though avowedly for the benefit of the royal treasury, did not prevent private individuals from engaging in it. Such persons frequently obtained licenses from the council of commerce at Goa either to traffic at a particular place or in a particular article, naturally on paying for the privilege as much as or more than could be gained by the council's selling and buying through its own agents. But fraudulent practices were so common that a large portion of the commerce of South-Eastern Africa did not pass through the legitimate channel at all. The governor of Mozambique himself and even some of the members of the council were engaged in traffic on their own account, and if these men, the guardians of the king's interests, were corrupt, what could be expected of their subordinates? The ivory sold in India far exceeded in quantity that which passed through the custom houses, yet the viceroy could devise no other remedy than the sale of a monopoly again. In 1720 he made a contract for the trade with Dom Francisco Alarcão Sotomayor, the newly appointed governor of Mozambique, but the king disapproved of it, and it was cancelled.

By the Portuguese court the retention of the commerce of South-Eastern Africa was not regarded alone as a question

of profit, though that was a weighty consideration, but as a question of national honour. It was all that was left to them of the vast trade of the East that had once been theirs. The English and the Dutch had deprived them of all share of the commerce of Asia, to such an extent indeed that at Goa itself they had to purchase Indian wares from one or the other of these. Eastern Africa alone remained, and they clung to it, though their grasp was feeble. In 1700 Mombasa was wrested from them. In 1725 it was recovered, but four years later the blacks rose in insurrection against Alvaro Caetano de Mello e Castro, the last of the Portuguese captains, and drove him away. A little later the Arabs acquired the stronghold. Feeling its helplessness, the government at Lisbon then withdrew its representatives from Zanzibar and Pate, to prevent their forcible expulsion, and thereafter confined its claims to Pemba and the coast below Cape Delgado.

From this seaboard they were threatened to be driven by other nations who coveted what little trade was to be carried on there. In 1721 it was brought to the notice of the king that the English East India Company had resolved to form an establishment at Delagoa Bay, but upon representations of the rights of Portugal being made to His Britannic Majesty, the design was abandoned.

In the preceding year the Dutch East India Company, incited by a report of the existence of valuable gold mines in the neighbourhood of the bay, resolved to take possession of the place, and fitted out an expedition in Holland for that purpose. In March 1721 this expedition arrived, and finding no representative of Portugal, nor even any trace of visits previously made by Portuguese except an aged runaway slave and some ruins of a temporary trading station on one of the islands, proceeded to select a site for a fort and a factory. The place chosen was on the northern bank of the Espirito Santo, where recently the town of Lourenço Marques has been built. The Dutch were thus the first Europeans to attempt to establish themselves permanently on the shores of Delagoa Bay, and their fort was the first structure of the

kind erected there. Though on the 12th of April 1723 the king wrote to the viceroy that it was rumoured the Dutch had established themselves in a port on the coast, which might be that of Lourenço Marques, and that he had resolved to send a frigate to compel them to withdraw, the position was retained by them, without the slightest interference or remonstrance from the Portuguese, until December 1730, when it was abandoned, owing to its unhealthiness and the lack of material for profitable trade.*

The country around the bay was thoroughly explored by them, and the various rivers were examined as far as they could be ascended by boats. It was ascertained that native traders travelled overland from Inhambane with goods purchased from the Portuguese, and that ivory obtained in exchange was carried back by them. Among other articles brought to the fort for sale were copper and tin in small quantities, and it was believed that the natives had learned to mix these metals and to make bronze arm and neck rings. In April 1722 three pirate ships plundered the fort, and early in 1723 some English vessels visited the bay, but no Portuguese appeared there at any time during the Dutch occupation.

Corruption was everywhere so prevalent in Eastern Africa that the orders of the king or the viceroy were disregarded by the officials when they stood in the way of making money. The very powder sent for defence was misappropriated by the men who were entrusted with its care. The inhabitants of Mozambique did not hesitate to trade with foreigners, and when the king issued instructions to enforce the law most strictly, it was found impossible to do anything in the matter because the whole of the officials were involved in the guilt. In 1725 a French frigate was allowed to take soundings and survey the harbour of Mozambique, and the

* A full account of the occupation by the Dutch of the fort on the western shore of Delagoa Bay is given in the first volume of my *History of South Africa under the administration of the Dutch East India Company*. The station was a dependency of the Cape Colony.

governor, Antonio João de Siqueira, gave her officers free access to Fort São Sebastião, entertained them, and received entertainment from them on board their ship in return. For this he was ordered to be arrested and tried at Goa, and the instructions to the viceroy to do everything possible to keep foreigners away from the coast were repeated by the king. They had utterly destroyed the commerce of India, he said, and that of Africa must by some means be retained. But as merchandise could be purchased at a cheap rate from the French and the English, who would also pay well for ivory and slaves, matters went on as before. In 1747 the governor of Mozambique was ascertained to have sold a number of slaves to a French ship, and not only so, but to have entered into a contract with her captain to supply him with many more in the following year and to have received a considerable sum of money in advance. The commerce of the coast north of Mozambique was at this time entirely in French hands.

The council that had the management of the African trade had conducted it in such a manner that by the year 1734 it was two hundred thousand cruzados in debt, and was then borrowing money at the rate of thirty per cent yearly interest to meet its most pressing needs. This could not continue, and in 1739, when some of its members were found guilty of speculation, it was abolished, and the traffic was undertaken directly by the treasury, just as in the early years of the sixteenth century. This system, however, lasted only until the 29th of March 1755, when a royal decree was issued, reserving the traffic in beads as a monopoly of the treasury and throwing open all other trade to any one who chose to engage in it. Thereafter the principal officials carried it on almost exclusively, taking care to manage things in such a way that private individuals could not compete with them.

From this time forward the character of the commerce of South-Eastern Africa underwent a gradual change. Constant wars almost destroyed the collection of gold and ivory, and instead of these articles slaves were exported in ever increas-

ing numbers. The prazos at a distance from the Zambesi were successively wrested from their European holders, and reverted to the condition of pure Bantu territory, so that it was no longer an object for a Portuguese resident in the country to have a large personal following. A few slaves for domestic service were all that he needed, and so whole hordes of the unhappy creatures were sold to strangers or to be conveyed to the plantations of Brazil. At the close of the eighteenth and the beginning of the nineteenth century this odious traffic was at its height, and our own countrymen were not the least busy of those who were taking in shiploads of negroes from the barracoons at Kilimane and Luabo.

On the 19th of July 1727 a little vessel named the *Victoria* was sent from the Dutch factory in Delagoa Bay to Inhambane to ascertain if any trade could be done there. Upon her arrival no Portuguese were found, but there was evidence that they were in the habit of frequenting that port, for there was a church standing near the river bank, besides a large house built of reeds and some empty huts. About forty Mohamedans were living there, who stated that they were collecting ivory and slaves in expectation of the arrival of a pangayo from Mozambique. The Dutch were able to purchase twenty-four slaves, ninety-eight pounds of ivory, two ounces of ambergris, and thirty-eight pounds of wax, and were about to leave when a pangayo, under command of Captain Bernardo de Castro Soares, made her appearance. There was an exchange of civilities between the two vessels, but nothing more. The *Victoria* reached Delagoa Bay again on the 13th of November with many of her crew down with fever.

In April 1728 she was sent once more to Inhambane to try to open up a trade. Upon her arrival she found the same pangayo at anchor that had been there the previous year, and her captain living in a palisaded enclosure on shore. He at once sent a protest against the Dutch trading in Portuguese territory. The Dutch officers thereupon sought an interview with him, and represented that as the Portuguese had no fort or other symbol of possession of any kind at the place they

regarded their right to trade as equal to his. He replied that his right was based on discovery by his nation, and on the Portuguese, and they alone, having traded there in the past. The Dutch officers responded that if he would show them clear proofs of Portuguese possession they would leave, as they wished to act in a friendly manner only. He then said that he had done his duty by protesting, and could not prevent them from trafficking with the natives. Sixteen men had deserted from the fort at Delagoa Bay some time before. Upon enquiring concerning them the Dutch officers were informed that thirteen of them had reached Inhambane, and that the captain had provided them with some merchandise to buy food and sent them on to Sofala to get rid of them. After this the two parties were outwardly on very friendly terms, and the Dutch had obtained forty-two slaves, six hundred and seventy-three pounds of ivory, five ounces of ambergris, and fifty pounds of wax, when one day they found that no native would come near them. The reason was that a Portuguese officer with a large band of armed blacks had arrived from Sofala, and was executing dire vengeance upon all who had been dealing with them. They returned therefore at once to Delagoa Bay.

The Dutch, however, were persistent in their efforts to secure a share at least of the commerce of South-Eastern Africa, and on the 14th of September 1731 two little vessels named the *Snuffelaar* and the *Zeepost* left Table Bay on another venture. The *Snuffelaar* arrived at Inhambane on the 11th of October, and found that a palisaded fort in the form of a square had been built there in the preceding year, and was then occupied by a few soldiers under the command of Captain João da Fonseca Moniz. The captain received the Dutch officers most civilly, and informed them that as they were of a friendly nation they would be supplied with as much water, fuel, and refreshments as they were in need of, but that he could not permit them to carry on any trade. The place, he said, yielded very little profit, and the establishment was maintained principally as evidence of the rights

of the king. Upon being questioned as to how far those rights extended, he replied from Delagoa Bay to Cape Guardafui. A priest was present during the conversation. There was no Portuguese vessel in the river at the time, but on the 14th of October one well armed arrived. The *Snuffelaar* sailed on the 23rd, without having done any trade whatever, but at Delagoa Bay, where the *Zeepost* was rejoined, twenty-two slaves, thirteen hundred and seventy-six pounds of ivory, and two hundred and thirteen pounds of tin were obtained. From this date onward Inhambane has been permanently occupied by the Portuguese, and no European power has molested them there.

A description of the place in 1771 given by some wrecked Dutch seamen who were hospitably treated at the fort shows that the garrison consisted of a captain and thirty-six soldiers, and that eight or ten private individuals were residing at the place in huts little better than those of the natives. They were all convicts banished to Inhambane either for life or for a term of years, and were occupied in collecting ivory, which was sent to Mozambique in a vessel that came for it once a year.*

In 1763 municipal government was introduced into the little settlements. A delegate of the governor went round, and with as much ceremony as possible inaugurated the new system. At Mozambique, Kilimane, and Zumbo, north of the Zambesi, and at Tete, Sena, Sofala, and Inhambane, south of that river, a magistrate, a prosecutor who was also treasurer, a secretary, and three aldermen were elected. But in most of these places municipal institutions were mere names. There was not a sufficient number of people competent to fill the offices, much less an adequate body of electors. There was no revenue, nor any means of raising one. The only purpose served was to make a show on paper,

* For the journey of the wrecked men see pamphlet No. 2 of *Belangrijke Historische Dokumenten* published by me for the Cape government in Cape-town in 1896. The account of the survey of Delagoa Bay in 1688 is in the same pamphlet,

for no object of utility could be gained by such parodies of European town governments.

The Mohamedan population of the Portuguese stations had always been treated with harshness. These people had in general sunk into a servile state, and were not formidable either in spirit or in number. They still carried on some of the retail trade among the Bantu, they furnished crews for the pangayos and luzios employed on the coast, and performed other services that required more skill than that of pure negroes. In 1727 the viceroy João de Saldanha da Gama decreed that they must sell to Christians all slaves brought by them from the interior within six months after reaching the coast, in 1728 he prohibited them from buying baptized slaves, and in 1730 he issued a final order that they could only hold slaves whose fathers and grandfathers had been Mohamedans, or heathen slaves if they caused them to become Christians and did not attempt to pervert them, but they were not to sell slaves except to Christians nor to take them to any country not under Portuguese dominion. Care was taken to prevent them from making converts to their creed among the free Bantu. And at length, from fear that they might assist their co-religionists in case of an attack by the Mohamedans of the north, it was resolved to expel them altogether. In 1765 they were driven from Sofala, and between that year and 1769 many were compelled to remove from Mozambique and the banks of the Zambesi. But as they could only take shelter in other parts of the country where they would be equally dangerous, they were gradually allowed to return, though they were not permitted to own or carry arms.

As regards mission work in South-Eastern Africa in the eighteenth century, there is not much that is satisfactory to be related. The Dominican order, to whom the task of christianising the Bantu south of the Zambesi was mainly entrusted, was very largely affected by the prevailing lassitude and decay of public spirit in the nation, and so many of its members were either Asiatics, Africans, or mixed

breeds that little zeal could be expected from it. In 1719 by a royal order all the missionaries in the country who were not vicars of churches or commissioners of the inquisition were removed, as they were believed to be doing more harm than good to the Christian cause. Again in 1725 seven of them were recalled for misconduct. The reformed Franciscans were at this time permitted to collect alms in the country, and had the privilege of removing two thousand six hundred pounds weight of ivory from the Rivers every year free of duty. This should have stimulated the Dominicans to reform themselves, as it showed that others might be sent to take their places, but it did not have that effect. In 1728 so many complaints were made regarding their manner of living that the king caused a notification to be made to the superior of the order in Goa that if better men were not employed in the mission field the whole of those who were there would be removed, and Jesuits or secular priests be sent to replace them. Beyond doubt the superior did all that was in his power to correct abuses, but the prevailing habits of most of the men he had to deal with were not to be overcome. In 1751, according to the yearly report furnished to the viceroy, the Dominicans had two friars at Sena, one at Tete, one at Sofala, three at different outstations south of the Zambesi, and one at Zumbo, the most distant trading station in the interior, on the northern bank of the great river. It was intended, however, to send five others to the country in the course of the year. The Jesuits were still represented at Sena, but had abandoned all their other stations south of the Zambesi.

On the 1st of September 1759 the famous decree was signed by King José I, at the instance of the marquis of Pombal, by which the Jesuits were expelled from all the possessions of Portugal. Their usefulness as evangelists among the heathen was denied, and their property everywhere was confiscated. At Mozambique their house was converted into a residence for the governor. But the minister was not satisfied with this, and did not cease his antagonism

until Pope Clement XIV issued a brief, on the 23rd of July 1773, which suppressed the famous order. It had then nearly twenty-three thousand professed members. Banished from Roman Catholic countries, and disowned by the pope, the Society of Jesus continued to exist in Russia, however, until its restoration by a bull of Pope Pius VII, issued on the 7th of August 1814.

In 1775 the Dominicans in South-Eastern Africa were ordered to Goa, and were replaced by secular clergy, eight of whom were considered sufficient for the whole coast. Of these eight only three were white men, the others being Asiatic mixed breeds, with a great deal of conceit but very little ability. In 1749 the officials at Mozambique had petitioned the king that the ecclesiastical administrator might have power conferred upon him to ordain priests, in which respect—and in this only—his authority was less than that of a bishop. They stated that the population of the island was growing, and they were of opinion that people of the country, who understood the language of the Bantu inhabitants, if ordained, would be more useful than strangers. The petition was referred to the viceroy, the marquis of Tavora, who replied in 1751 that on his passage out he had been detained two months at Mozambique, and had observed that the number of persons there qualified for admittance to holy orders was extremely small, so he saw no reason for a change. The matter was then allowed to drop. And so, between wars and want of competent teachers, Christianity declined in Portuguese South Africa, and among the Bantu quite died out. At the beginning of the nineteenth century there were only twelve hundred and seventy-seven professing Christians in the whole region south of Cape Delgado, and they comprised the white people and mixed breeds of both sexes and all ages. In addition to these there were in the different villages five hundred and eighty-nine free individuals who were not professing Christians, making one thousand eight hundred and sixty-six persons in all. This was the condition of things after an intercourse between

the Caucasian and black races extending over nearly three hundred years.

An attempt was made in the middle of the eighteenth century to induce the Portuguese and mixed breeds of the lost Asiatic settlements to colonise South Africa. Many of these people had removed to Goa, where there was nothing for them to do. They were offered free passages and grants of land along the Zambesi, but the country had acquired such an evil reputation that they declined to attempt to make homes in it. In January 1753 the viceroy—the same marquis of Tavora who was so soon thereafter to lose his head in Lisbon for participation, real or imaginary, in the conspiracy that is known by his name—reported that not a single family could be persuaded to remove.

But it would not be correct to attribute such an utter failure to christianise the natives and to improve the country as has been described in the last few pages either wholly to want of zealous teachers, or to an incapacity of the Bantu to assimilate European thought, or to want of energy on the part of the Portuguese. Without colonisation on a sufficiently large scale to make the higher indisputably the ruling race, no part of Africa can be brought permanently within the domains of civilisation, and for settlement by Caucasians the portion of the continent along the Indian Ocean north of Delagoa Bay was then not at all adapted. On the lower terraces facing the sea and on the banks of the Zambesi fever is endemic, and white children rarely grow up. On the highlands of the interior and in some localities on the third terrace upward from the ocean the climate is healthy, but under the conditions which existed before the middle of the nineteenth century it was not possible to plant colonies there. White people could only make their way gradually onward from the south, and even now, though there is a railroad through the fever and tsetse fly belt down to the nearest coast, the southern route is preferred by nearly every one. Portugal with her limited means cannot justly be blamed for not doing what the wealthiest and most populous

country of Europe must have failed to accomplish if an attempt had been made.

During the greater part of the eighteenth century Delagoa Bay was neglected by the Portuguese. In 1755 a trading party from Mozambique occupied for a few weeks a site on the southern bank of the Espirito Santo, just as others had done on one of the islands during the preceding century, but they resided there temporarily on sufferance of the native chief, not at all as proprietors.

In June 1757 the Dutch ship *Naarstigheid* put into the bay dismasted and so leaky that it was with difficulty she could be kept afloat. Her crew remained there over two years before they were relieved, without seeing or hearing of any Portuguese. The country around was thoroughly explored, and several men, while endeavouring to make their way to the Cape of Good Hope, travelled beyond Port Natal. At the farthest point which they reached they found some half-breeds, children of two Englishmen who had been saved from a wrecked ship. They also learned that a Dutch vessel had recently visited Port Natal. At that time the most powerful chief in the neighbourhood of the bay was a man named Mangova, who was the ruler of the tribe along the Tembe river, and who had the hereditary title of Kapela, just as the chief of the Makalanga had the hereditary title of Monomotapa. The tribe that occupied the island Inyaka and the peninsula south of it was then in a state of vassalage to him.

In 1776 an Austrian expedition, fitted out with the sanction of the empress Maria Theresa by an association termed the Asiatic Company of Trieste, arrived in the bay with the object of establishing trading stations on its shores. The expedition was commanded by an Englishman, Lieutenant Colonel William Bolts, who selected sites for posts on the island of Inyaka and near the mouth of the Maputa river. At the last-named place a small fort was constructed, and thirteen guns were mounted on it. No Portuguese were there at the time, but nearly two years afterwards, when the viceroy at Goa came to

learn of the existence of the Austrian establishment, he sent a protest against its continuance, on the ground that the shores of the bay were Portuguese territory.

The government at Lisbon followed up this protest by an order to the viceroy to endeavour to assert his right by arms, and in consequence the frigate *Santa Anna* was sent from Goa with as strong a force as could be got together to expel the Austrians. Meantime the people at the bay were stricken with fever, and in a quarrel with the natives some of the principal officers were killed and the station on the island of Inyaka was destroyed.

On the 30th of March 1781 the *Santa Anna* reached her destination. There were two unarmed vessels under the Austrian flag in the bay when she arrived, both of which were seized and sent to Goa. The few fever-stricken people at the fort on the Maputa river were incapable of offering resistance. The Portuguese commandant, Joachim Vicente Godinho de Mira, made them prisoners, and destroyed the little building. This matter caused some correspondence between the Austrian and Portuguese governments, but the former did not attach much importance to it, and ultimately, without any close examination, the sovereignty of the latter over the territory enclosing the bay was recognised.

To prevent other powers from taking possession of the place on the ground of its being unoccupied, it was now considered necessary to erect a small fort there, and in January 1782 the captain Joaquim d'Araujo was sent with a few men from Mozambique for that purpose. The captain's death, sickness among the men, and the hostility of the natives prevented the completion of the design, and in 1783 the acting captain, João Henriques d'Almeida, abandoned it and returned to Mozambique. In 1784 another party was sent with the same object, but was wrecked at the Bazaruta islands. In 1785 still another expedition was made ready, and this one was successful, for in 1787 a small fort was completed on the site which the Dutch had occupied more than half a century earlier on the northern bank of the Espirito Santo. A trading estab-

lishment was added to it, and now, for the first time, the Portuguese occupation was more than transient.

In 1794 civil war broke out in the Kapela's tribe, and José Correia Monteiro de Mattos, commandant of the little fort, by taking part with one of the combatants obtained a nominal deed of cession of the whole Kapela country to Portugal. The document was dated 10th of November 1794, but no steps were taken to assert authority of any kind over the natives or the territory.

In October 1796 two French frigates entered the bay and destroyed the fort, which was then occupied by an unusually strong garrison of eighty men. The Portuguese retired into the back country, where they lived in the greatest discomfort until May 1797, when a vessel arrived from Mozambique and rescued most of them.

For some years British and American whalers had frequented the bay and made of it a base of operations, just as the buccaneers and illicit traders had done at the beginning of the century. They did not trouble themselves about any question of ownership, but came and went as suited their convenience, and trafficked with the natives without any recognition of Portuguese authority or customs laws. In June 1798 the British Indiaman *Lion* put in there in distress, and found three English and three American whaling ships at anchor. Captain Sever, who commanded her, engaged the three British vessels to take his cargo home, as the *Lion* was not seaworthy. She was anchored in the river, abreast of the site of the fort, which the French had levelled with the ground. Several Portuguese soldiers and a few Mohamedans of the coast were living in the neighbourhood, expecting a vessel from Mozambique with the next favourable monsoon to take them away.*

* *Journal of a Voyage performed in the Lion extra Indiaman, from Madras to Columbo, and Da Lagoa Bay, on the eastern coast of Africa (where the ship was condemned) in the year 1798. With some account of the manners and customs of the inhabitants of Da Lagoa Bay, and a Vocabulary of the Language.* By William White, Esq., Captain in the 73rd Highland Regiment of Foot. A quarto pamphlet of seventy pages, published at London in 1800.

The place remained without a garrison until the 7th of June 1799, when the captain Louis José arrived with a detachment of troops from Mozambique. There was war at the time among the Bantu on the northern side of the Espírito Santo, so he entrenched himself on the other bank, where he remained about a year, when with comparative safety he was able to remove to the site of the destroyed fort and rebuild it.

At the close of the eighteenth century the trading and mission stations that had once existed in the interior were so completely lost that no one could even point out their sites, and all vestiges of the influence once exercised by the Portuguese in the Kalanga country had disappeared. The native tribes of earlier days had been entirely broken up, and the ancient titles had been forgotten, except that of Kiteve, which remained until 1803, when the chief Fika, the last who bore it, died. Tete, Sena, and a few prazos along the lower Zambesi and in the neighbourhood of Sofala, with the forts at Inhambane and Lourenço Marques comprised the Portuguese dominions in South Africa, and these were held with very feeble hands. Commerce was almost confined to the export of slaves. Depression and decay were visible everywhere, and no feature of a pleasing kind, except a slightly increased knowledge of the country towards the west, is to be found at this period.

From very early days there was a desire on the part of the government at Lisbon to form a connection between the eastern coast and Angola by means of a caravan path, but it was impossible to open such a road. The tribes in the way were constantly at war, they spoke different dialects, and each one was ready to strip a traveller who should attempt to pass through its territory. Trifling articles of merchandise, which probably changed hands many times in transit, passed over at long intervals from coast to coast, but no individual, white or black, is known to have accomplished the journey before the nineteenth century, nor was any reliable information obtained concerning the upper course of the Zambesi or the territory south of it.

In May 1796 a man named Manuel Caetano Pereira, the son of a Goanese and a negress, left Tete for a journey inland, and upon his return reported that he had reached the residence of the chief Cazembe, in about longitude 29° east of Greenwich, but the information he gave was confused and could not be relied upon. He accompanied the expedition of 1798, and was found to have no knowledge of value.

On the 3rd of July 1798 an expedition properly equipped by the government, and commanded by Dr. Francisco José de Lacerda e Almeida, a gentleman of scientific attainments, great general ability, and much previous experience in Brazilian and African travel, left Tete with the object of trying to reach the western coast. Dr. Lacerda's instructions, issued in the name of the queen, were that he should ascertain the source of the Cunene river which flows into the Atlantic, find out if a road for commerce could not be opened between the two coasts, and report upon the condition of the tribes on the route and the means necessary for bringing them into the Christian fold. The expedition consisted of fifteen to twenty Portuguese and mixed breeds, fifty so-called soldiers, and a number ever varying from one to four hundred slaves and native porters. Dissension among the Europeans and mixed breeds was rife from the beginning of the journey, and it was with great difficulty that the resolute leader preserved anything like order among them. Frequent desertion of slaves and hired porters also caused great annoyance and delay.

After encountering all the difficulties of African travel where the tribes are uncontrolled, the expedition arrived at the kraal of Cazembe, but there the leader, worn out with fever, fatigue, and annoyance, died on the 18th of October. The chaplain Francisco João Pinto then took command. He did not attempt to proceed farther, and after remaining with Cazembe until July 1799, set out to return to Tete, which place he reached on the 22nd of November of the same year. The results of this expedition were meagre, though some knowledge of the country to the north-west was obtained.

CHAPTER XIX.

THE LOWEST POINT OF PORTUGUESE AUTHORITY.

THE condition of Portugal from the time of the departure of the regent Dom João to Brazil until 1855, when Pedro V ascended the throne as a constitutional monarch, was such that very little attention could be given to her African possessions. War succeeded war, revolution followed revolution, councils of regency appeared and disappeared, democrats and aristocrats rose in turn and fell, all was chaos and confusion. This is the least interesting period of the history of the mother country, and it would be the least interesting period in the history of South-Eastern Africa also if the wars among the Bantu had not been more destructive than ever before. A rapid glance at the principal events that took place is therefore all that is necessary.

While the war with France continued French cruisers and privateers preyed upon the coasting trade until it was nearly annihilated. The stations were garrisoned with blacks, who were so poorly and so irregularly paid that they were often in revolt against their officers. Even Fort São Sebastião seldom contained more than fifty or sixty European and mixed breed soldiers, who were aided by three or four hundred negroes. The walls of this fort were badly in need of repair, and the guns mounted upon them were old and almost useless. The governor was now, as a measure of policy, made independent of the viceroy at Goa, that he might have more freedom of action and greater responsibility. Along the Zambesi strife and disorder were constant, and in 1807 the principal officer there lost his life at the hands of the natives.

During the first half of the century the slave trade was almost the only source of revenue. Vessels badly fitted out and crowded with negroes to their utmost capacity sailed from Kilimane and the other ports for Brazil, often arriving at their destination with less than a third of the number taken on board. Some of these vessels put into Table Bay in distress, with hardly any provisions or water left, for their owners calculated from the outset upon obtaining supplies there and thus being able to transport more slaves. For a time this plan succeeded, as humanity forbade the vessels being sent away without food; but when it was ascertained that this was depended upon as a means of furthering the traffic, all assistance was refused. The passage had then to be made without a break, so the vessels left with fewer slaves and more provisions. The horrors of these voyages, especially when any accident happened or when sickness broke out, can hardly be overdrawn.

Events at Delagoa Bay at this period began to assume greater importance than in earlier years. On the 5th of April 1805 José Antonio Caldas, who was then captain of the fort at Lourenço Marques, obtained from a native chief a deed of cession to Portugal of a considerable tract of land north of the Espirito Santo, which that chief had wrested from its proper owner. But the weakness of the garrison and the circumstances of the time were such that no real cession was intended, and the relation of the two parties to each other remained as it had been before.

The English and Americans evidently made whale fishing pay, so in 1817 the Portuguese formed a company to carry on the same pursuit, and commenced operations at Delagoa Bay. But the effort was not attended with much success, for there were too many officials in proportion to the number of seamen, and they did not display the same activity as their competitors. Their jealousy of the English and Americans, though only natural under the circumstances, led them whenever an opportunity occurred to illtreat subjects of the Bantu chiefs who had dealings with their rivals, until

such animosity was aroused that on the 29th of June 1818 the superintendent of the fishery, João Pereira de Sousa Caldas, lost his life in a quarrel with the natives.

Towards the close of 1822 an English exploring and surveying expedition, under Captain William FitzWilliam Owen, of the royal navy, entered Delagoa Bay. It was provided with credentials from the government at Lisbon to the Portuguese officials on the coast, in which they were required to render all the assistance in their power, as the object was purely scientific. But when Captain Owen requested protection for his boats' people while they were surveying the rivers, he was informed by the commandant of the fort that the natives were not subject to the Portuguese government, and that he must depend upon his own resources. That was the true condition of matters at the time. Accordingly the English officers acted thereafter as if Portuguese sovereignty did not extend beyond the range of the guns of the fort, and when Mayeta, the chief of the tribe along the Tembe river, was understood as offering to cede his country to Great Britain, Captain Owen accepted the cession. A document to that effect was drawn up and formally signed and witnessed on the 8th of March 1823.

A close examination of this paper and of the reports concerning it show, however, that the object of the chief was something very different from what appears on the surface. Tshaka had then commenced his murderous career in the country to the south, and some clans of the great tribe afterwards welded together by Manikusa had made their appearance on the shores of Delagoa Bay, where they were causing great havoc among the earlier inhabitants. It was protection from them that Mayeta desired, not subjection of himself and his followers to foreign authority. Captain Owen described the conquering clans, whom he termed *Vatwaha*, as a martial people of free air and noble carriage, marked by piercing very large holes in the lobes of their ears. They were clothed with the skins of animals, lived chiefly on animal food, used oval shields of oxhide large enough to

cover their bodies, and carried from three to six assagais and a stabbing spear. One night a band of them attacked an English surveying party that was encamped in tents, so he had more than a casual acquaintance with them.

The original inhabitants of the country around the bay he described as a timid race, armed with assagais and spears, and sometimes carrying a small shield. Many of them wore hardly any clothing at all, but some were dressed in calico obtained from the Portuguese and others in woollen garments bartered from whalers. They possessed horned cattle, goats, and barnyard poultry, and had in their gardens rice, maize, millet, sweet potatoes, onions, cabbages, pumpkins, pineapples, bananas, and other foreign and indigenous fruits. Most of these vegetables and fruits had been introduced by Europeans, and were cultivated by the natives not only for their own use, but for disposal to the crews of whalers. Throughout the country beads were used as coin: four hens could be had for a penny's worth, and the labour of a man for a day cost the same. With beads and calico these natives bartered from others ivory and ambergris, which they disposed of to Europeans at a large profit. Captain Owen estimated the population of the shores of the bay south of the Manisa river at one hundred thousand souls.

Into the territory of these timid agricultural and commercial people, the ferocious *Vatwahs*, kinsmen of the *Zulus*, had come like lions into a herd of antelopes, and no wonder they sought protectors. The Portuguese in the fort did not, and could not, help them, they even purchased from the invaders the spoil gathered in murderous raids. The main body of the *Vatwahs* was then encamped at a distance of only thirty or forty miles, so the need was urgent. This was the cause of the chief of *Tembe* affixing his mark to the document that purported to be a deed of cession of his country to the king of England. A native who had served in a whaler and who could speak a little broken English advised him to make the application, and he followed the counsel. But that he did not realise what he was doing is

however, certain, and this deed of cession was of no greater value, honestly considered, than the one covering the same ground made to the Portuguese in November 1794. The document was purely European in word and spirit, and contained clauses that no Bantu chief in South Africa was capable of understanding.

On the same day that it was signed, 8th of March 1823, the British flag was hoisted on the bank of the Tembe river, and was saluted with twenty-one guns. As soon as possible thereafter notice was given to the captain of the Portuguese fort that the tribe had become British subjects, but no authority of any kind was ever exercised over them, nor was the least protection against their enemies given to them. They were left as before to themselves, and in the terrible wave of war that soon afterwards rolled over their land they were almost exterminated by Manikusa without the British government as much as knowing what was taking place.

On the 23rd of August 1823, Makasane, chief of the tribe occupying the territory between the Maputa river and the sea, that is the same tract of land that had once belonged to the friendly ruler Garcia de Sá, affixed his mark to a document by which he placed himself and his country under the protection of Great Britain. Captain Owen's object in obtaining this declaration was to secure for England the two islands Inyaka and Elephant, which were regarded as more healthy stations than any on the mainland, and behind which there was good anchorage for ships. He wrote that he considered Delagoa Bay as a place of considerable political and commercial importance. It was the only good harbour on the coast south of Mozambique, over which it had many advantages, as it was easy of access at all seasons of the year, was free of such currents as would obstruct navigation, and had a better country behind it. It was the door for commerce to the vast interior, was the base of a valuable whale fishery, and commanded intercourse with the entire seaboard of Madagascar at all seasons of the year. From it British sovereignty might be extended southward to embrace Natal

and the whole of the coast. In the possession of a foreign power it could be made ruinous to the Cape Colony and to the commerce of India, either in peace or war. In peace it could be made a *depôt* for eastern productions, and in war one of the finest ports in the world whence hostile expeditions might issue at pleasure. These were the reasons assigned by Captain Owen for taking the preliminary steps to make the south-eastern shore of the bay an English dependency. But no force was left for Makasane's protection, and beyond the existence of the formal document there was nothing to show that Great Britain had obtained a foothold there.

Some of the names of the rivers were changed by this expedition into English ones. Thus the Manisa became the King George's, but the old designation of that stream near its mouth survives until to-day, and the new one is now seldom used, while the upper course is always known as the Komati. The Da Lagoa or Lourenço Marques became the Dundas, but recently the Bantu name Umbelosi has driven all the others out. The estuary called the Espirito Santo was changed into the English river, and is still frequently so termed.

In October 1823 Captain Owen sent from Mozambique a report to the Admiralty office upon the condition of Eastern Africa at the time. He stated that there were then in that harbour seven vessels taking in slaves for Rio Janeiro, one of them, of six hundred tons burden, being intended to carry twelve hundred. Not fewer than twenty-five thousand slaves were exported from Mozambique annually. From Kilimane sixteen vessels had taken during the preceding year ten thousand slaves. Between Inhambane and Brazil there was also direct communication, but from that port the number sent away was not so large. At Delagoa Bay the traffic was still less. The cost of a slave to the Portuguese at Kilimane, Inhambane, and Delagoa Bay was rarely more than two or three dollars, and they were sold to the owners of the ships at from twenty to thirty dollars each. These owners

considered that they made a good voyage if a third of the number embarked reached Rio Janeiro, where they brought from one hundred and fifty to two hundred dollars each. Sometimes half were saved, when the gain became a strong motive for more extensive speculation.

Sofala, he reported, was the most miserable of all the Portuguese establishments on the coast except Lourenço Marques: it could not even furnish a boat to assist one of his ships when aground. Strangers everywhere visiting the stations for purposes of trade were subject to wanton indignity and exaction. In Mozambique an English vessel, even in distress, was obliged to pay five per cent of the value of any goods it might be necessary to land, and twenty-five per cent on everything that was sold. Inhambane was the most thriving of all the settlements, owing to the exceptional ability of its captain, who encouraged industry in the free natives by his example, counsel, and manner of administration.

Except along the lower Zambesi the Portuguese had then no dominion or authority beyond the limits of their forts and factories. At Sofala, however, they professed to have recently conquered with fifty men the whole of the old Kitevo country as far as Manika, though when he was there he found them almost shut up in their establishment by tribes at war with them, and along the Zambesi it was feared that some hostile chiefs might destroy Sena and Tete.

Mozambique was in such a critical state that the governor found it necessary to reside within the fort. He had not more than twelve or fourteen European soldiers, and only eight officers on whom he could rely, mostly very young men. In the market nothing except slaves was exposed for sale, and it was with much difficulty that any other provisions than rice and shellfish could be procured. Most of the traders were Arabs so-called and Banyans. In short, the whole country from Delagoa Bay northward presented a lamentable picture of decay and ruin, owing to the indolence and incapacity of those who claimed to be its possessors.

Captain Owen recommended that the treaty which permitted the Portuguese to carry on the slave trade in their dominions between Cape Delgado and Delagoa Bay should not be construed to include independent native territory within those limits.* Nowhere south or north of the Zambesi had they any dominion whatever beyond the muzzles of their guns. In most parts, indeed, they were even excluded by the natives. Great Britain could make treaties with the independent chiefs which would destroy the slave trade, or she could establish factories for commerce where she could undersell the Portuguese and starve them out. Or, as Delagoa Bay must be considered as of great importance to

* The following are the clauses of the treaties limiting the extent of territory in which the Portuguese could carry on the slave trade:—

Article X.

His Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal being fully convinced of the Injustice and Impolicy of the Slave Trade, and of the great disadvantages which arise from the necessity of introducing and continually renewing a Foreign and Factitious Population for the purpose of Labour and Industry within His South American Dominions, has resolved to co-operate with His Britannic Majesty in the cause of Humanity and Justice by adopting the most efficacious means for bringing about a gradual abolition of the Slave Trade throughout the whole of His Dominions. And actuated by this Principle His Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal engages that His Subjects shall not be permitted to carry on the Slave Trade on any part of the Coast of Africa not actually belonging to His Royal Highness's Dominions, in which that Trade has been discontinued and abandoned by the Powers and States of Europe, which formerly traded there, reserving however to His Own Subjects the Right of purchasing and trading in Slaves within the African Dominions of the Crown of Portugal.—Treaty of 19th February 1810.

Article II.

The Territories in which the Traffic in Slaves continues to be permitted, under the Treaty of the Twenty second of January one Thousand Eight Hundred and fifteen, to the Subjects of His most Faithful Majesty, are the following: 1st. The Territories possessed by the Crown of Portugal upon the Coast of Africa to the South of the Equator, that is to say, upon the Eastern Coast of Africa, the Territory laying between Cape Delgado and the Bay of Lourenço Marques, and upon the Western Coast, all that which is situated from the Eighth to the Eighteenth Degree of South Latitude.—Treaty of 28th July 1817.

the Cape Colony, an arrangement might be made with the Portuguese government that it should withdraw its claims to all territory south of Inhambane and abolish the slave trade farther north, conditionally upon Great Britain abstaining from entering into any relations with the chiefs beyond Cape Correntes.

Probably a neutral party would have drawn a less gloomy picture of the condition of South-Eastern Africa at this time, and would have disputed Great Britain's right to do what Captain Owen recommended, but there can be no question as to the weakness of the Portuguese government or the extent of the slave trade.

On the 3rd of November 1823 Commodore Joseph Nourse, who was then in command of the British naval force on the Cape station, arrived in Delagoa Bay in the *Andromache*. An English trading vessel named the *Orange Grove* was lying at anchor there at the time. Commodore Nourse obtained from the captain of the fort a promise to abstain from interference with natives trading with the English, but after the departure of the two ships he took a different course. The reverend Mr. Threlfall, a Wesleyan missionary who had gone to the bay with Captain Owen, and who remained there until 1824, when he returned in ill health to Capetown in the whaler *Nereid*, reported that immediately after the departure of the *Andromache* and the *Orange Grove* the Portuguese captain showed a disposition to subjugate the native states, and threatened the chiefs with immediate war if they would not accede to his terms. In December he caused the Portuguese flag to be hoisted in Tembe, and appointed three soldiers to guard it. About the same time an official of the chief of Maputa ceded the south-eastern territory to the Portuguese, but the chief refused to confirm the cession, upon which the captain sent a company of soldiers and a large number of enlisted natives of another tribe against him. Makasane obtained assistance from the chief of Tembe, but was defeated with a loss of many killed, and his followers then dispersed.

A good deal of skirmishing among the various tribes followed, until the Portuguese and their allies were destroyed by an act of treachery rather than of war. One of the chiefs sent a present to the captain with a message that it was intended as giving his consent to the arrangement proposed, and invited him to come to the territory and hoist the Portuguese flag. The captain, Lupe de Cardenas by name, fell into the snare laid for him. With all the officers of the garrison except Lieutenant Teixeira who was sick, forty-five soldiers, and most of his native allies, he was proceeding to the place arranged for hoisting the flag with due ceremony, when he fell into an ambushade and the whole party, excepting three soldiers and a few of the native allies, perished under the assagai. Those who escaped fled to the fort, which was at once besieged, but the attacking party was induced to withdraw by presents of beads. Internecine strife among the various tribes followed, and this alone saved the Portuguese establishment from entire annihilation.

This account, however, is not quite in accordance with the official documents on the other side. According to them the chiefs who had affixed their marks to the English documents signed a counter declaration, to the effect that they were subjects of the king of Portugal, as their fathers from time immemorial had been. The captain Lupe de Cardenas with a junior officer and thirty-nine black soldiers then proceeded to hoist the Portuguese flag on the banks of the Tembe river, whereupon Mayeta, the chief who was asserted to be a subject of Portugal as his ancestors had always been, attacked the party, killed Cardenas and twenty-six of his men, and obliged the ensign and the remaining thirteen negroes to surrender and submit to his mercy.

In this precarious manner the fort or trading station continued to be held until 1833, without authority of any kind over the neighbouring Bantu clans being exercised. It was just the other way, for the tenure under which the Portuguese occupied the ground on which they lived was one of sufferance on condition of friendly behaviour towards the

strongest of their neighbours. They were there at the mercy of the barbarians.

With the object of trying to keep strangers away, on the 13th of November 1824 a royal charter was issued in which an exclusive monopoly of the commerce of the bay was granted to the Fishing Company, as it was supposed its agents would show a good deal of energy in the matter. This charter remained in force until January 1835, when the Company was dissolved.

For some years the country round Delagoa Bay had been devastated by war of an exceptionally ferocious character. The principal section of the tribe now known as the Abagaza had broken away from the terrible destroyer Tshaka, and was spreading havoc among the less highly disciplined people of the north. Many of the clans were exterminated, and others were reduced to the most abject condition, all their property being seized, and their serviceable children of both sexes being taken away to swell the ranks of their conquerors. On the 22nd of October 1833 a strong body of warriors of the Gaza tribe appeared before the fort on the Espirito Santo. They were provided with no other weapons than short-handled stabbing assagais, so they could not effect an entrance, but during the night of the 27th the captain Dionysio Antonio Ribeiro, seeing an opportunity to escape, evacuated the place, and with his men retired to the island Shefina, which lies close to the coast. On the following day the Abagaza destroyed the fort, and then pursued the Portuguese to the island and captured them all. The prisoners were brought back to their ruined habitation, and were there put to death.

The Abagaza were under a chief named Manikusa, often called Sotshangana. They routed and destroyed the tribes in front until they reached the Sabi river, where they settled. Shortly afterwards another horde, now known as the Angoni, fleeing from Zululand, reached the Sabi by another route. They and the Abagaza fought for a while, but presently they resumed their march and pushed their way northward to the

western shore of Lake Nyassa, where they became a scourge to all around them. Manikusa remained behind, devastating the territory from Delagoa Bay to the Zambesi, and destroying the clans within it, the descendants of the tribes that three centuries earlier had been governed by the Sedanda, the Kiteve, and the Tshikanga, as well as the various divisions of the Batonga south of the Sabi.

The captain of Inhambane was so rash as to attempt to assist a friendly clan against Manikusa. Inhambane had then about twenty-five Portuguese residents, all told, and the garrison of the little fort São João da Boa Vista consisted of about a hundred negroes. The village contained a church dedicated to our Lady of the Conception, and a few houses built in the European style, though none of great size, as the station was inferior in importance to those on the Zambesi. The result of the interference with Manikusa by the captain of Inhambane was the plunder of the village and the slaughter of the captain himself and all the inhabitants except ten individuals who managed to escape, 3rd of November 1834.

Sofala had sunk to be a place of very little note. Its fort had fallen into decay, and its best houses were built of mud. Still it had a captain and a garrison of negroes. In 1836 it was attacked by the Abagaza, when the fort managed to hold out, but all else was plundered and destroyed. The military commandant, José Marques da Costa, then collected the friendly natives in the neighbourhood, and with them and his negroes ventured to give the enemy battle, with the result that every individual of his force perished.

Sena contained ten houses built in the European style, one church, and a small fort. A number of native huts stood close by. There were not more than twenty white inhabitants, including three military officers and a priest, and in 1830 these had been obliged to abandon the place temporarily on account of a famine. There were fifty or sixty mixed breeds and sixty blacks called soldiers, but they were very little in advance of the barbarians around them. The Abagaza attacked the place, and after killing fifty-four of the Portu-

guese and mixed breeds, drove the remaining inhabitants of the village to the islands in the Zambesi. An arrangement was then made that the traders should pay to the chief of the conquering horde a certain quantity of merchandise yearly, and on this condition they were allowed to return.

The government at Lisbon was unable to supply a competent force to protect the stations while the Abagaza were in the first flush of their victorious career, and could devise no other expedient than to make the government of the Rivers independent of that of Mozambique. In 1834 José Gregorio Pegado was appointed military governor of Mozambique, and Isidro Manuel de Carrezedo was sent to the Rivers to do the best he could without any interference. He could do nothing, as has been seen, for military force was what was needed, and with his failure the former system of government was reverted to.

The havoc created among the Bantu between the Zambesi and the Limpopo by the Abagaza on the south, the Makololo on the north-west, and the Matabele on the west, was very great. Many of the ancient clans were quite exterminated, and of those that remain in existence few occupy the same ground that their ancestors did. In the years 1852 and 1853 especially they were scattered and destroyed with no more compunction than if they had been vermin. The Portuguese stations were reoccupied within a few years, but they were held with difficulty. In 1849 the captain of Inhambane was killed, as was his successor in 1850. In these years Lourenço Marques and Sofala were attacked, and narrowly escaped destruction the second time. Lourenço Marques, indeed, was held under the most precarious of tenures until quite recently. In 1868 it was attacked by a tribe in the neighbourhood that was assisted by a European renegade, and was only saved by the bravery of the captain José Augusto de Sá e Simas. As late as 1878 there were only four hundred and fifty-eight Europeans, Asiatics, and mulattos combined living there. Of these, two hundred and ninety-five were men, thirty-two were women, and one hundred

and thirty-one were children. Ninety-three Portuguese, twenty-eight Europeans of other nationalities, sixty-six mulattos, and eighty-three Asiatics professed Christianity, and one hundred and thirty-three Indians and fifty-five others did not.

The prazos south of the Zambesi were of course nearly all overrun, and on the 22nd of December 1854 a decree was issued by the government in Lisbon abolishing the system. The decree was not enforced, however, by the local authorities, except that the method of inheritance was no longer observed, and a few prazos held by individuals who arrogated to themselves the rights of feudal lords and who regarded their people as mere serfs, continued in existence.

There is a little island called Chiloane (Tshilwané) off the coast about forty miles south of Sofala. It is nearly divided into two by a sluggish creek, and is not at all an attractive place, but it has a fairly good harbour, and it is secure against ravages by Bantu from the mainland. Some of the half breeds and others who lived among the natives in the neighbourhood of the ancient gold port removed to this island, and since 1862 a military force has been stationed there to protect them. A lighthouse has also been built on Tshingani Point on the island, though the commerce of the place is very small.

In 1855 some of the refugees from the mainland went to reside on the island of Santa Carolina, one of the Bazaruta group, and a small garrison was stationed there as an evidence that the Portuguese were the owners.

On the 10th of December 1836 a decree was issued by the government at Lisbon abolishing the traffic in slaves throughout the Portuguese dominions. But so far from its coming into force in Eastern Africa, the marquis of Aracaty, who was then governor of Mozambique, issued a proclamation on the 11th of November 1837 suspending its operation, on the plea of absolute necessity. This led to correspondence with the British government, which had then emancipated the slaves everywhere within its own dominions and was exerting itself to the utmost to induce foreign nations to follow its example. But the traffic continued, and when after

a time in accordance with treaty arrangements British cruisers were stationed on the coast to endeavour to suppress it, they could generally be evaded by the slave vessels getting away from one port while they were watching another. It has only been in our own times that this traffic has ceased.

The law regarding commerce by strangers was now greatly modified.* In 1811 it was made legal to import goods of foreign manufacture, provided they were carried in Portuguese vessels manned to the extent of three-fourths of the crew by Portuguese subjects. But restrictive laws, except where a government is very strong, invariably foster illicit traffic, and it was so in this instance. Foreigners could not be kept away. Seeing this, in 1853 the government at Lisbon wisely adopted a system under which a revenue from strangers would be obtained, while smuggling was made too unprofitable, compared with the risk, to be carried on. Under this system Portuguese goods imported into Eastern Africa in Portuguese ships were charged four per cent of their value as customs duty, foreign goods imported in Portuguese ships were charged eight per cent, and foreign goods imported in foreign ships twelve per cent. Articles exported in Portuguese ships to Portuguese ports were charged one per cent of their value, in Portuguese ships to foreign ports

* According to treaty British subjects nominally had rights of trade in Eastern Africa, except in certain reserved articles; but as these included gold, ivory, and of course slaves, they were practically prohibited from purchasing anything else than provisions. The following is the text of the article referring to East Africa in the treaty of commerce between Great Britain and Portugal :

Article XXIV.

All Trade with the Portuguese Possessions situated on the Eastern Coast of the Continent of Africa (in Articles not included in the Exclusive Contracts possessed by the Crown of Portugal) which may have been formerly allowed to the Subjects of the Great Britain, is confirmed, and secured to them now and for ever, in the same Manner as the Trade which has hitherto been permitted to Portuguese Subjects in the Ports and Seas of Asia is confirmed and secured to them by Virtue of the Sixth Article of the Present Treaty.—Treaty of 19th February 1810.

three per cent, and in foreign ships to foreign ports five per cent. This cannot be regarded as an unreasonable tariff for that time, and though it has been modified of recent years, Portuguese goods still have the advantage of differential duties in their favour, which is only right in the case of a remote dependency.

In 1856 the farce was enacted of creating a council for the province of Mozambique, consisting of thirteen members, in which Tete was allotted two representatives, and Sena, Sofala, Inhambane, and Lourenço Marques each one. At the same time the term of office of the heads of the stations was extended from three to five years, in order to obtain the advantage of experience. Ten years later, on the 1st of December 1866, a more practical decree was issued, which established improved courts of justice, both inferior and superior, in Eastern Africa.

Beyond Tete the whole country to the westward had long been lost to the Portuguese, and with it of course the station that had once been regarded as the most important for the commerce of the interior and the conversion of the Bantu. This was Zumbo, on the northern bank of the Zambesi, nearly two hundred and fifty English miles by the stream upward from Tete. Projects for the reoccupation of this post had frequently been discussed, but nothing could be done before 1862, when Albino Manuel Pacheco hoisted the Portuguese flag there once more. The ruins of the ancient church and of the house once inhabited by the captain marked the site of the station. But Zumbo, though re-occupied, has never attained its former importance, and only five or six Europeans have since resided there at a time. Its principal value to the Portuguese has been that it gave them a right, acknowledged by Great Britain, to the territory along the river bank that distance westward, and secured for them a boundary line including it when the interior of the continent was divided between different claimants a few years ago.

The most interesting event during this period is the pro-

gress of geographical knowledge concerning South Africa, and for this the world is mainly indebted to an intrepid Scotch missionary. The honour of accomplishing the journey across Africa for the first time, however, is due to two native traders named Pedro João Baptista and Amaro José, who were in the employment of Lieutenant-Colonel Francisco Honorato da Costa, director of the fair of Mucary in the district of Pungo Andongo. These men were entrusted with a letter to the captain of Tete, and left Muropue in Angola on the 22nd of May 1806. One of them, Pedro João Baptista, was sufficiently well educated to be able to keep a sort of journal, but they had no instruments of any kind with them, nor were they competent to make observations. On the 2nd of February 1811, four years and eight months after setting out, they delivered the letter at Tete, and in May of the same year left on their return journey. They reached Loanda again safely, and thus accomplished the feat of crossing the continent in both directions. Some knowledge of the interior far north of the Zambesi was gathered from these intrepid travellers, but no information whatever concerning the country or the people to the south.

On the 1st of June 1831 a large expedition left Tete to follow up Dr. Lacerda's exploration to the west coast. Major José Maria Correia Monteiro was in command, Captain Antonio Candido Pedroso Gamitto was next in authority and also journalist, and there were no fewer than four hundred and twenty blacks in different capacities. But the difficulties encountered were so great that from the kraal of Cazembe the expedition turned back, after despatching a letter to the governor of Angola by some trustworthy black traders of the party. The letter was dated 10th of March 1832, and was delivered on the 25th of April 1839. Thus it was not by Europeans, but by blacks, that this transit of the continent was effected.

On the next occasion it was performed by three Arab traders from Zanzibar, who, finding themselves far in the interior in want of merchandise, pushed on to the nearest

coast, and reached Benguela on the 3rd of May 1852. The governor of Angola offered a million reis and the honorary title of captain to any one who would return to Zanzibar with the traders, and describe the route between the two coasts. A resident of Angola named Antonio Francisco Ferreira da Silva Porto accepted the offer, but after travelling a hundred and seven days he could go no farther, and therefore turned back. He sent some of his people on, however, who reached Mozambique safely on the 12th of November 1854.

It was reserved for the reverend Dr. David Livingstone to be the first white man to cross Africa from coast to coast, and to be also the first to give reliable information upon the interior of the country south of the upper course of the Zambesi. This famous explorer proceeded northward from the Cape of Good Hope along the healthy highlands of the interior to Linyanti, the residence of the paramount ruler of the Makololo tribe, about midway between the two oceans. There he resided long enough to acquire the confidence of the chief Sebetuane,* and, after the death of that renowned warrior, of his son Sekeletu. In order to open a trade route to the sea, the value of which these chiefs were capable of appreciating, Sekeletu provided Dr. Livingstone with an ample escort, and sent a quantity of ivory with the caravan for sale on the coast.

Having Linyanti in the centre as a base of supply, more

* Sebetuane was born on the northern bank of the Caledon river, near the territory now termed British Basutoland. In 1821 the tribes between the Caledon and the Vaal were attacked by others who were fleeing from the Zulu spear, and in one great body, known as the Mantati horde, they crossed the Vaal and made their way westward, destroying everything in their line of march. On the 26th of June 1823 they were defeated near Lithako by a body of Griqua horsemen, and they then broke into sections and dispersed in different directions. Sebetuane, at the head of one strong party, cut his way northward, and settled at Linyanti, on the river Chobe, a tributary of the Zambesi. Here he was a terrible scourge to the clans far and near. His son Sekeletu, who succeeded him, died of leprosy, and then the Makololo, as the tribe formed by Sebetuane was termed, broke up. See vol. iv of my *History of South Africa*.

than half the difficulty of crossing the continent was done away with. To that point a waggon road was open from the south, and everything needed for the journey was collected there with little difficulty. On the 11th of November 1853 the caravan left the Makololo kraal, and on the 31st of May 1854 arrived safely at Loanda in Angola. After resting there nearly four months, on the 20th of September Dr. Livingstone set out to return, but the journey back to Linyanti could not be accomplished in less than a year.

It was evident that the route to the west coast was too difficult to be of much use, and the explorer therefore resolved to try to open up a water way by the Zambesi to Kilimane. Leaving Linyanti on the 3rd of November 1855, equipped and attended as before, he followed the great river down to the sea, discovering on the way the magnificent Victoria fall. After touching at Tete, where he left most of his companions to await his return from England, he arrived at Kilimane on the 20th of May 1856. Thence he proceeded to Europe, and four years later returned to Linyanti by the same route.

Since that time the continent has frequently been crossed, and soon the various details of its features were known, and full information was obtained concerning the tribes that occupy it.

CHAPTER XX.

REVIVAL OF ACTIVITY IN PORTUGUESE SOUTH AFRICA.

AFTER 1838, when the emigrant farmers from the Cape Colony began to settle on the highlands of the interior between the Vaal and Limpopo rivers, the southern part of the territory claimed by the Portuguese along the eastern coast acquired a value it never had before. The excellent harbour at the mouth of the Espirito Santo in Delagoa Bay was the nearest port to the newly occupied territory, and efforts were repeatedly made to open a road to it.* These did not succeed for many years, owing to the prevalence of fever near the coast and to the intermediate belt of land being infested with the tsetse fly, but the position of the bay made it certain that in time all the difficulties of establishing communication through it between the South African Republic and the outer world would be overcome.

In 1852 the independence of the farmers north of the Vaal was acknowledged by Great Britain, and the importance of the bay was realised in England, where the documents obtained by Captain Owen in 1823 were not forgotten, though no action beyond a little correspondence between the authorities at London and Lisbon had ever been taken upon them. Matters were left in abeyance, however, until the 5th of November 1861, when Captain Bickford, commanding her Majesty's ship *Narcissus*, planted the British flag on the islands Inyaka and Elephant, which he proclaimed British territory, and together with the adjoining roadstead he

* For a full account of these efforts, see vols. v and vi of my *History of South Africa*.

declared to be annexed to the colony of Natal. This action was protested against by the Portuguese, and a lengthy correspondence between the two governments ensued.

Captain Bickford had hardly set sail when a man, who was destined to occupy a prominent position thereafter in South-Eastern Africa made his appearance at the Portuguese fort on the Espirito Santo. His name was Umzila. He was a son of the recently deceased chief Manikusa, and having incurred the jealousy of his father he had been obliged to flee and for some time had been living as a refugee in the South African Republic.* Upon the death of Manikusa, his son Maweve succeeded as chief of the Abagaza, but a strong party favoured Umzila, who was much the abler man of the two.

On the 1st of December 1861 Umzila applied to Onofre Lourenço d'Andrada, captain of the fort on the Espirito Santo, for assistance against his brother. Manikusa, his father, had been a terrible scourge to the Portuguese, and Maweve, his brother, bade fair to be equally hostile. He, on the contrary, offered to recognise the sovereignty of the king of Portugal, and to cede all the land up to the Manisa river, in return for military assistance. The captain Andrada was not in a position to give much help. His whole force could not have stood five minutes in the open field against the weakest of Maweve's regiments, but he recognised that a crisis had come, and that if Umzila was unsuccessful, the Portuguese possession of any part of the coast south of the Zambezi river would be at an end. What Umzila needed also was not so much men as arms and ammunition, and he could spare a few antiquated firelocks and a quantity of gunpowder.

An arrangement was therefore entered into, and on the 2nd of December 1861 the cession of the territory—though it was not yet in the giver's possession—was formally made. All the assistance that was possible was then afforded to Umzila. The war between the brothers lasted many months,

* For an account of Umzila's residence in the South African Republic see vol. vi of my *History of South Africa*.

but at length in two battles fought on the banks of the Manisa on the 17th and the 20th of August 1862 Maweve's adherents were completely crushed. Umzila then became undisputed chief of the Gaza tribe, and until his death ruled over nearly all the Bantu in that large expanse of territory marked in the maps as Gazaland, extending from the Zambesi river on the north to the Manisa on the south, and from the fringe of the great interior plain down to the shore of the Indian's sea. Throughout his life he remembered the assistance that had been given to him by the Portuguese, but did not always refrain from hostile actions towards them, and certainly never regarded himself as their subject. To control a tribe as powerful as his, the means to compel obedience to authority must be ever present, no matter what flag is supposed to wave over the territory, and the Portuguese at that time had no force in South-Eastern Africa that could command respect.

They were, however, beginning to improve their position, which had already passed its lowest point of depression. A favourable turn in their affairs was taking place in the lower Zambesi valley, as will presently be related, and on the Espirito Santo a much stronger and better fort than the one previously existing was constructed in 1864, which was strengthened three years afterwards by the addition of four small batteries. A few houses were built on the adjoining ground, and thereafter the site came to be generally called Lourenço Marques.

On the 29th of July 1869 a commercial treaty was concluded between the governments of Portugal and of the South African Republic, as the state established by the emigrant farmers from the Cape Colony was called, and in it a boundary line was fixed from the parallel of $26^{\circ} 30'$ south latitude along the highest ridge of the Lebombo mountains to the centre of the lower poort of Komati, where the river of that name passes through the range, thence in a straight line about north by east to Pokioenskop on the northern bank of the Olifants river where it passes through the mountains, thence in a direction about north-west by north to the nearest

point of the mountains of Chacundo on the Umvubu river, and thence in a straight line to the junction of the Pafuri and Limpopo rivers.

Such a treaty could not be regarded with indifference by the British government, whose interests in South Africa were likely to be seriously affected by it. Accordingly the claim to the southern and eastern shore of Delagoa Bay, based on the documents obtained by Captain Owen, attracted greater attention, but naturally the Portuguese government refused to acknowledge it. Arbitration was then decided upon, and on the 25th of September 1872 a protocol was signed at Lisbon, by which the contending parties agreed to submit their respective claims to the decision of the president of the French Republic.

The case for Portugal was well worked out, though many mere suppositions were made to appear as incontrovertible facts, and numerous papers were put in which could easily have been proved to be of no weight whatever. Their records and ancient histories were searched, and everything that favoured their claim was brought forward, while all that opposed it was carefully held back. Among their documents was a treaty between Great Britain and Portugal, in which the territories of the latter on the East African coast were declared to extend from Cape Delgado to the bay of Lourenço Marques, which they reasonably interpreted as including that bay. Real effective occupation of any part of the country beyond the precincts of their fort they could not prove, nor could they show the exercise of substantial control over any of the native clans living in the vicinity. But their discovery of the bay, their commercial dealings with the tribes on its shores, the cessions on paper made to them, and what more has been related in these chapters, they fully proved.

The English case was less carefully prepared. It could not have been brought to appear as good as that of the Portuguese, but by a careful search in the archives of the Cape Colony and in printed and manuscript volumes in the library

of the British Museum, it might have been considerably strengthened. An attempt was made to show that the bay of Lourenço Marques mentioned in the treaty put in by the Portuguese really meant the estuary of the Tembe, Umbelosi, and Matola, that is the Espirito Santo or English River, and not the large sheet of water of which this is only a very small part, but such an interpretation was easily proved to be incorrect. Some of the documents relied upon by the other side were explained away, but the fact that the territory in dispute had for centuries been within the sphere of influence of the Portuguese—though at irregular intervals and to a very limited extent only—could not be disturbed. If the Portuguese claim to the southern and eastern shores of the bay was weak, the English claim was weaker still.

On the 24th of July 1875 Marshal Macmahon, president of the French Republic, issued his award, which gave to Portugal the territory as far south as the parallel of latitude of 26° 30' from the ocean to the Lebombo mountains. That included the territory of Tembe, defined as bounded on the north by the Espirito Santo or English river and the Lourenço Marques, Dundas, or Umbelosi river, on the west by the Lebombo mountains, and on the south and the east by the river Maputa and the shore of Delagoa Bay. In it was also comprised the territory of Maputa, between the Muputa river and the sea, including the Inyaka peninsula and the islands Inyaka and Elephant.

Various schemes for the construction of a railway between Lourenço Marques and the capital of the South African Republic had been projected before the publication of the award which secured the seaboard to Portugal, but all had fallen through. On the 11th of December 1875, less than five months after that event, a treaty was entered into between the governments of the two countries, which provided for the free interchange of the products of the soil and industry of the republic and the Portuguese possessions, for the importation free of customs duties through the port of Lourenço Marques of a great many articles destined for the

republic and for the importation of all other articles thus destined upon payment of duty at the rate of three to six per cent of their value, as also for the construction of a railway from the harbour inland. Owing to political events in South Africa this treaty could not be carried into effect for some years, but it was revived and ratified again on the 7th of October 1882.

On the 14th of December 1883 the Portuguese government granted a concession for the construction of a railway about fifty-two miles in length, from Lourenço Marques to Komati Poort, on the western boundary. The subsidy offered was ample, still it was only in March 1887 that a Company was formed in London to carry out the work. In November 1888 the line was opened to a point which was believed to be on the Portuguese boundary, though soon afterwards it was ascertained to be some distance short, and then, as it could not be completed within the stipulated time, the government took advantage of the opportunity and on the 24th of June 1889 confiscated the railway. This led to interference by Great Britain and the United States on behalf of the shareholders, but after much negotiation the Portuguese authorities retained the line, and the amount of compensation to be awarded to the Company was referred for decision to three Swiss lawyers. These gentlemen did not issue their award until March 1900, when they adjudged the Portuguese government to pay £941,511, less than half of what the claimants considered themselves entitled to.

Meantime on the republican side a railway was being constructed from the Portuguese border at Komati Poort towards the heart of the country. In July 1895 this was completed and joined to the southern line through the Orange Free State and the Cape Colony, so that there is now complete communication between Capetown and Lourenço Marques. A large proportion of the commerce of the territory between the Vaal and the Limpopo finds its way to Delagoa Bay, and with the development of the gold fields during recent years, the traffic is as much as the line can carry.

Lourenço Marques has thus become a place of considerable importance. A town of some size has sprung up, and is rapidly growing, though the death rate is exceedingly high. It is believed, however, that with the drainage of a great marsh adjoining it the place will become less unhealthy. The means of landing and shipping goods with facility are being provided, and a lighthouse at the entrance to the harbour has been built. The residents of the town are of various nationalities, a large proportion being English and Germans. There is no commerce of any consequence with the surrounding territory, which is, as of old, in possession of Bantu clans, the existence of Lourenço Marques as a town being due solely and entirely to the transit of merchandise and passengers between the shipping and the railway to the interior. Yet it is to-day much the most important place in the Portuguese possessions in South-Eastern Africa.

Next to it comes Beira, a town unknown fifteen years ago, and which sprang into being as the ocean terminus of a road from a settlement—not Portuguese—in the interior. Beira is at the mouth of the Pungwe river, not far north of Sofala. It has an excellent harbour, capacious, with good depth of water, and easy of access. The Arabs had once a small settlement there, but the Portuguese never occupied the place in olden times, and when the Asiatics retired, it fell into such decay that for more than three centuries it was almost forgotten.

Owing to negotiations with Germany and France relative to the partitioning of the continent, in 1887 Portugal advanced a claim to the whole territory between Angola and Mozambique down to the South African Republic, but Great Britain immediately announced that her sovereignty would not be recognised in places not occupied by a sufficient force to maintain order. There were no Portuguese at all at that time on the highlands north of the Limpopo, nor had a single individual of that nation, as far as is known, even visited the clans there within the preceding century. The Matabele chief Moselekatse had conquered the greater part of

the country in 1838 and subsequent years, had slaughtered most of its inhabitants, and ruled over the others with a ferocity unknown except among African tribes. The border of the Matabele raids on one side was the border of the Gaza raids on the other, and Lobengula, son and successor of Moselekatse, was the recognised lord of the interior plateau from the Limpopo to the Zambesi, acknowledging or pretending to acknowledge no superior. Gungunyana, son of Umzila and grandson of Manikusa, was the real lord of nearly all the territory between the edge of the interior plateau and the sea, and though the Portuguese claimed him as a subject, he was to all intents and purposes independent of control.

This condition of things was indisputable, yet the intense jealousy of many Portuguese was aroused when early in 1888 an agreement was made by a British commissioner with Lobengula, in which that chief bound himself to refrain from entering into correspondence or concluding a treaty with any other state or power, and the territory governed by him was declared to be within the British sphere of influence. That they had never occupied the country, and never could occupy it, was not taken into consideration, it was the background of a line of coast which their navigators had first discovered and along which they had military and trading stations, and that was sufficient in their opinion to justify their claim to it.

Negotiations were opened between the governments of Great Britain and Portugal, but while they were proceeding subjects of both countries were busy securing rights from native rulers. Two Portuguese—Colonel Joaquim Carlos Paiva d'Andrada and Lieutenant Cordon—with some black troops visited various petty chiefs, and induced them to accept flags and in some instances to allow a few of the so-called soldiers to be stationed at their kraals. At the same time several energetic Englishmen obtained from the Matabele chief various concessions, which were united in the hands of one strong Company, to which on the 29th of October 1889 a royal charter was granted.

In August 1890 an agreement was entered into by the governments of Great Britain and Portugal, in which the eastern limits of the British South Africa Chartered Company's territory were defined, but it was not ratified by the cortes, though it served as a basis for a temporary understanding between all the parties whose interests or whose passions were involved. At this time a strong body of men, fitted out by the Chartered Company, was on the way from the Cape Colony to the northern territory, and on the 11th of September 1890 reached the site of the present town of Salisbury, where the British flag was formally hoisted and the country taken in possession in the name of the Queen.

On the way up the pioneer expedition had constructed forts at Tuli, Victoria, and Charter. From Charter the Company's administrator, Mr. Archibald Colquhoun, with Mr. Frederick Courteney Selous and a small escort, travelled eastward to the kraal of Umtasa, the principal chief of the Manika country. With this chief, on the 14th of September, an arrangement was made, by which he placed himself under the protection of the British South Africa Company, to whom he granted a concession of mineral and other rights in his country. He declared that he was not, and never had been, under subjection or vassalage to the Portuguese government, but that a trading station had with his consent been established by the Mozambique Company in 1888 at a place called Andrada in the Masikesi district, some twenty miles to the south-east, and he knew that an agent of this Company—João de Rezende by name—was residing there. A policeman and a native interpreter were left with Umtasa to represent the British South Africa Company, and Mr. Colquhoun then rejoined the pioneers at Salisbury.

Mr. Selous rode over to Masikesi to visit the Portuguese station, and on the way met two officers with a party of black attendants, who were bearers of a protest against the arrangement just made with Umtasa, and who claimed a vast extent of territory to the westward as being in the dominions of their sovereign. In that territory not a single Portuguese

was then resident, and there were not ten individuals of that nation in the whole of Manika.

That they had a special claim upon the allegiance of Umtasa, resting chiefly upon the position in which he stood to a man named Gouveia, was afterwards brought forward. This Gouveia, or Manuel Antonio de Sousa as he was called by the Portuguese, was a native of Goa who had settled in Africa shortly after the middle of the century. He was a man of considerable force of character, and had performed services of great importance for the crown. Having obtained a prazo, he armed and trained his dependents upon it, and then acted like a powerful feudal lord in mediæval times in Europe, being in matters affecting his retainers and in disputes with his neighbours almost, if not quite, independent, though in everything else acknowledging the supremacy of the Portuguese government.

He went to the aid of the people of Sena, drove away their Gaza oppressors, and released them from the ignominy of paying tribute. He recovered much of the territory that had formerly been prazos and that had been overrun by the subjects of Manikusa. Services so eminent were warmly acknowledged by the governor general at Mozambique and by the authorities in Lisbon, and Gouveia was appointed chief captain of a great district and had the honorary title of colonel conferred upon him. For twenty years the body of men that he commanded, consisting entirely of his black dependents, was almost the only military force employed by the Portuguese in South-Eastern Africa at a distance from their stations. Under these circumstances war could not be conducted as if the combatants were European soldiers, and Gouveia's reputation among his neighbours was rather that of a daring and successful freebooter than of an official of a civilised government.

In 1873 the chief of the largest clan in Manika died, and there was a quarrel concerning the succession. One of the claimants was Umtasa, but he was defeated in battle and driven away. This was just such an opportunity as Gouveia

was wont to take advantage of, so he went to the aid of Umtasa, whom he succeeded in establishing firmly in the chieftainship as a vassal of his own. At the same time, however, Umtasa necessarily became a dependent of Umzila, who was paramount over all the Bantu in that region. Thus he had two overlords, which meant that two individuals more powerful than himself claimed and exercised the right of levying tribute from him and his people at any time. And as both of these overlords were regarded as Portuguese subjects, it followed that he also was in the same position.

In addition to this he had been invested with the office of chief by the commandant of Sena, and had received the appointment of sergeant-major of Manika. Further, in February 1888 Colonel D'Andrada had hoisted the Portuguese flag at his kraal, and had left the flag in his keeping. On all these grounds, the Portuguese authorities claimed Umtasa as a subject and the district occupied by his people as part of the dominions of their crown.

The British South Africa Company's officers, on the other hand, declined to take any notice of the Portuguese claim, because it was evident Umtasa himself did not recognise it, and because those who made it had no means of maintaining order or protecting life and property, the essential duties of sovereignty. They did not admit that Gouveia's followers constituted a force such as a civilised government had a right to employ.

In October a report reached Salisbury that Colonel D'Andrada and Gouveia with a band of followers were on the way from the east towards Umtasa's kraal. Mr. Colquhoun at once sent a few policemen to support the chief, and soon afterwards increased the number to thirty and directed Captain Patrick William Forbes to take command. Captain Forbes arrived at Umtasa's kraal on the 5th of November, and formed a temporary camp at a short distance from it. He then sent a messenger to Masikesi, where Colonel D'Andrada and Gouveia then were, with a protest against their proceeding farther with an armed force.

Colonel D'Andrada had no wish to precipitate matters. He was a highly educated and amiable man, who had resided ten or twelve years in South Africa, where he had held various offices under the government, besides being the occupant of a *prazo* at the mouth of the Zambesi. He knew perfectly well that any force which he and Gouveia could bring into the field would be unable to meet the British South Africa Company's police in battle. Besides he was a director of the Mozambique Company, and his interests were all on the side of peace. But he was also a Portuguese colonel of artillery, and his pride and patriotism revolted against being turned away from a place that he had more than once visited before, and that he regarded as Portuguese territory. His ostensible mission was to open a road to the interior from the head navigable water of the Pungwe and to arrange matters in connection with the exploitation of some mines, in the interests of his Company. He resolved therefore to proceed on his journey. On the 8th of November Gouveia arrived at Umtasa's kraal, and was followed shortly afterwards by Colonel D'Andrada and João de Rezende, when their whole following amounted to between two and three hundred men, including palanquin-bearers, carriers, and personal attendants.

Captain Forbes now resolved upon decisive action. On the 14th of November with twelve troopers of his police he entered Umtasa's kraal, and arrested Gouveia and the two Portuguese gentlemen, who had just retired from an interview with the chief. The natives looked on with approbation, and were ready to assist if that had been necessary. Gouveia's men were encamped under some trees several hundred yards away, where they were surprised by the remainder of the British police, and were disarmed before they could make any arrangement for resistance. De Rezende was permitted to return to Masikesi, but Colonel D'Andrada and Gouveia were sent as prisoners to Salisbury, and left that place under escort for Capetown. At Tuli, on the way, they met Dr. Jameson going up to assume the administration of the

British Chartered Company's territory, and by him were released from further restraint. From Capetown Gouveia proceeded to Mozambique by steamer, and Colonel D'Andrada took passage to Portugal to lay the matter before his government.

After the arrest of their leader and the seizure of their arms, Gouveia's men fled homeward, and to prevent the Mozambique Company's trading station at Andrada in Masikesi from being plundered, Captain Forbes placed a temporary guard there. He then proceeded to visit various native chiefs living between the Busi and Pungwe rivers, with whom he entered into friendly arrangements, his object being to secure a road to the coast at Beira, a place which the Mozambique Company had recently made use of as a harbour.

There was great excitement in Portugal when intelligence of the events at Umtasa's kraal reached that country. Bands of students pressed forward as volunteers to defend the honour of their flag, and were sent with all haste to Beira. It seemed as if the ancient spirit of the people of the little kingdom had revived, and that they were ready to proceed to the last extremity in an attempt to get nominal possession of a territory that could be of no use whatever to them. The government, however, was not so far carried away with the prevailing excitement as to cease negotiations for a friendly settlement with the British authorities.

Upon the arrival of the first party of volunteers at Beira, they were sent forward with some negroes from Angola, under command of Major Cardas Xavier, to occupy Andrada. They arrived at that station on the 5th of May 1891. Not far distant was a camp of the British South Africa Company's police, fifty-three in number, commanded by Captain Heyman. On the 11th of May a Portuguese force, consisting of about a hundred Europeans and three or four hundred Angola blacks, was sent out to make a reconnaissance, and at two in the afternoon fell in with the English pickets, who retired upon the camp. The Portuguese followed, and an

action was brought on, which resulted in their total defeat, with a heavy loss in killed and wounded. There were no casualties on the British side. Umtasa and his followers watched the engagement from the top of a hill out of range of the shot, and expressed great satisfaction with the result, though probably they would have done the same if the position of the combatants had been reversed.

The whole Portuguese force now fled precipitately to the seacoast, abandoning Andrada, which the British Chartered Company's men occupied on the following day. They found there some stores, of which they took possession as lawful spoil of war, but the most valuable part of the booty consisted of eleven machine guns that had been left behind.

Meantime the negotiations between the two governments in Europe had been brought nearly to a close, and when intelligence of the collision arrived, they were quickly completed. On the 11th of June 1891 a treaty was signed at Lisbon, in which the boundary between the British and Portuguese possessions south of the Zambesi was declared to be a line starting from a point opposite the mouth of the river Aroangwa or Loangwa, running directly southward as far as the sixteenth parallel of south latitude, following that parallel to its intersection with the thirty-first degree of longitude east of Greenwich, thence running eastward direct to the point where the river Mazoe is intersected by the thirty-third degree of longitude east of Greenwich, following that degree southward to its intersection by the parallel of south latitude of $18^{\circ} 30'$, thence following the upper part of the eastern slope of the Manica plateau southward to the centre of the main channel of the Sabi, following that channel to its confluence with the Lunte, and thence striking direct to the north-eastern point of the frontier of the South African Republic. It was agreed that in tracing the frontier along the slope of the plateau, no territory west of longitude $32^{\circ} 30'$ east of Greenwich should be comprised in the Portuguese sphere, and no territory east of longitude 33° east of Greenwich should be comprised in the British sphere, except

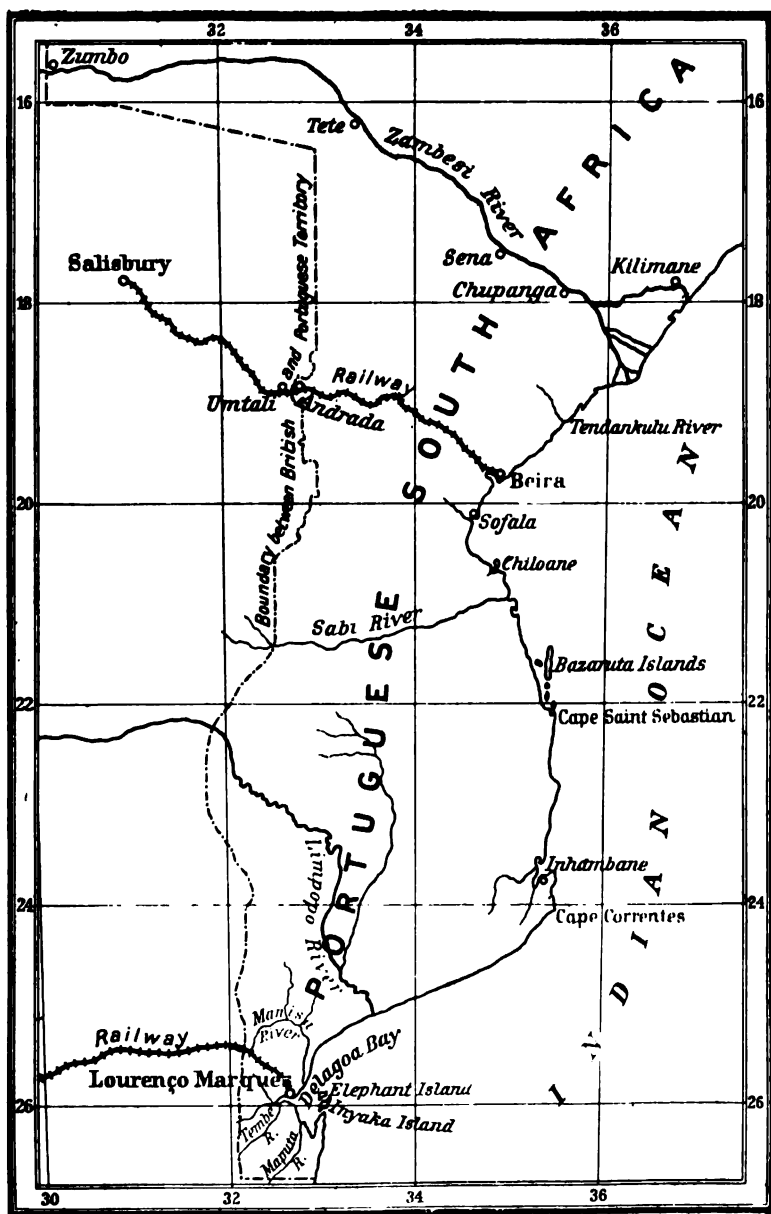
that the line should, if necessary, be deflected so as to leave Umtasa's kraal in the British sphere and Masikesi in the Portuguese sphere.

The treaty provided further that in the event of either of the powers proposing to part with any territory south of the Zambesi assigned to its sphere of influence, the other should have a preferential right to the territory in question, or any portion of it, upon similar terms.

It provided for the transit of goods across the Portuguese territory during the following twenty-five years upon payment of a duty not exceeding three per cent of their value, for the free navigation of the Zambesi, for the construction of lines of telegraph, and for facilitating transit of persons and goods of every description over the waterways of the various rivers and over the landways which supply means of communication where the rivers are not navigable.

A very important clause provided for the immediate survey and speedy construction of a railroad between the British sphere of influence and the navigable water of the Pungwe river, and for encouraging commerce by that route.

And now, for the first time, the Portuguese territory in South Africa was properly defined on all sides, and was secured from invasion by tribes beyond its border. It contained as great an area as its owners could by any possibility make beneficial use of, and as many natives as they had sufficient power to control. It would not have been to their advantage if the boundary had been laid down farther westward. They could not colonise any of the land beyond it, and without colonisation on a large scale an addition of territory would have implied nothing more than additional expense and additional responsibility. Now, with ample scope for their commercial enterprise, with an assured revenue, and with two flourishing seaports—Lourenço Marques and Beira—in their possession, their prospects were brighter than ever before. This they owed to the settlement of other European nations on the highlands away from the coast, and their pride, which was wounded by seeing the vast interior of the



continent in other hands, might be soothed by the reflection. In accordance with the terms of the treaty, a railroad has been constructed between Beira and Salisbury, through Umtali, the British town nearest the border. The capital was furnished by the British South Africa and Mozambique companies, the former contributing rather more than the latter. Beira is built on a tongue of sand extending into the Pungwe river. The site is the healthiest on that part of the coast, but the flat country stretching away behind is a hotbed of fever. The town has advanced with rapid strides, and is now a place of considerable importance.

The whole of Portuguese South Africa between the Zambesi and Sabi rivers, except the district of which Tete is the centre, is now ruled by the Mozambique Company. This Company was formed in 1888 as a mining corporation, the acquisition of the gold-fields of Manika being the inducement to the shareholders to subscribe the capital. On the 11th of February 1891, however, the Company obtained a royal charter, which conferred upon it large administrative powers. The charter was followed on the 30th of July by a royal decree, and on the 28th of December of the same year by the publication of statutes, which documents combined form the present constitution. The Company has a monopoly of all mineral and commercial rights, which it may lease in detail to associations or individuals, it is under an obligation to introduce a limited number of colonists, and it has taxing and governing powers subject to the supreme authorities at Lisbon.

The chief official of the Mozambique Company in the territory between the Zambesi and Sabi rivers has the title of governor, and resides at Beira. The country is divided into districts, over each of which a commissioner, subordinate to the governor, presides. The officers who administer justice are appointed by the supreme government, and are not subject to the Chartered Company, but to the governor-general at Mozambique. There are courts at Beira, Sena, Andrada, Sofala, Chiloane, Gouveia, and Chupanga. Sena

and Sofala have not recovered their old importance, small as that was, and are now insignificant places compared with Beira. Andrada and Chilokane have been described. Gouveia and Chupanga, recently the centres of prazos, can hardly yet be dignified with the name of hamlets. The last-named—Chupanga—on the southern bank of the Zambesi, is well known to English readers as the burial place of Mrs. Livingstone, wife of the celebrated explorer, and of Mr. Kilpatrick, a member of the surveying expedition under Captain Owen. It is one of the most beautiful localities in a land that abounds with charming scenery, but the deadly fever must for ever prevent it from becoming a place of note.

The old system of giving out great tracts of country as prazos has been abolished, unless the whole territory be regarded as one great prazo in possession of the Chartered Mozambique Company. By that Company unoccupied ground is now allotted for agricultural purposes on quit-rent tenure, but no area larger than five thousand English acres can be held by any individual or association. Occupation of ground and mining are open to people of all nationalities, upon condition of their submission to the laws of the country.

The tract of land between the Limpopo and Manisa rivers, from the inland border to the sea, is held by another Company under a concession from the crown, dated 16th of November 1893, but nothing of consequence has yet been done to develop its resources.

Inhambane, the port of the territory between the Limpopo and the Sabi, has made some progress of late years, though as it is dependent upon trade with the natives only, it is far less important than Lourenço Marques or Beira. The village consists of a church and a few houses and shops.

There remains the territory of which Tete is the seat of government, between the Zambesi and the Anglo-Portuguese border west of the Mozambique Company's district. Early in the nineteenth century the greater number of the prazos there were almost denuded of people, so many were sent

away as slaves to Brazil. Washing for gold ceased, and the larger part of the territory reverted to the condition in which it was when white people first saw it. The village of Tete sank to be a mere depôt of the ivory trade.

Thus long before 1844 Portuguese influence had been declining, and in that year it was completely lost by the insurrection of a Goanese half-breed named Joaquim José da Cruz, commonly called Nyaude, who was the holder of an extensive prazo. This man armed and trained some four hundred black dependents, and then built a strong stockade at the confluence of the Luenya with the Zambesi, from which he exacted tribute upon all commerce passing up and down. Two of the neighbouring chiefs were induced by the authorities of Tete to attack him, but were repulsed, and their people were exterminated as a warning to others.

Nyaude then sent a division of his force, under his son Bonga, or as called by the Portuguese Antonio Vicente da Cruz, against Tete, when the village was plundered and most of the buildings burned. The church and a few houses were spared, and the fort, into which the inhabitants retired, was not taken. In the following year, 1854, two hundred men were sent from Lisbon to suppress the revolt, but after suffering from hunger, fever, and other forms of misery, they were defeated by Bonga, and those who remained alive were obliged to retreat.

In 1855 an amnesty was offered to Nyaude, but he declined to accept it, and continued his career of robbery. The unfortunate inhabitants of Tete were reduced to great distress, but nothing could be done to relieve them, and no shadow of Portuguese authority remained beyond the range of the guns of the fort.

A few years later Nyaude died, and was succeeded by his son Bonga. Efforts were made to conciliate the new chief, who was appointed sergeant-major of Masangano, but he would not desist from plundering far and near, nor submit to control of any kind. Early in 1867 he massacred a number of people, and then a force eight hundred strong

was raised at Mozambique and sent against him. On the 6th of August this force, when close to the stockade, was attacked by the robber captain, and was defeated with great slaughter. Two other expeditions sent against him in the same year also failed.

In 1869 Portugal made another effort to recover her authority. A hundred artillerymen and four hundred fusileers, well equipped with war material, were sent from Lisbon, and were joined by three hundred and fifty soldiers from Goa and as many Africans as could be enlisted and armed along the Zambesi. But the campaign was so badly conducted that the men were suffering from want of food before they reached the scene of action, and the military movements were carried on with the utmost vacillation and want of skill. Bonga's stockade was bombarded with artillery for three days without a breach being effected, and the army was so distributed that the best section of it was surprised and annihilated. The failure of the expedition was complete, and those who escaped slaughter were few.

From that time until 1888 Bonga's power—the power of an audacious and merciless ruffian—was supreme. Then Gouveia took the matter in hand, and not the least of the services which he performed for his government was the capture of the stockade and the dispersion of the robber band. Arrangements with various chiefs along the river followed, and the Portuguese influence was again restored.

Tete has been rebuilt, and now contains the church which was spared when the village was plundered by Bonga and from twenty to thirty stone houses of European pattern, roofed with red tiles. It is protected by a small garrison of black troops with white officers, who occupy a quadrangular fort overlooking the river. The European residents, officials included, do not number more than twenty-five or thirty, for the commerce of the place is small. A native town of ordinary huts stands close behind the European quarter. The government of Tete, as of all the Portuguese stations in South Africa except those under the administration of the

Chartered Company, is military in form, and subordinate to Mozambique. The Jesuits have recently established a mission here and also at a station a few miles distant. There are extensive coal fields in the neighbourhood, and it is possible that, owing to them, the village may some day become a thriving place.

Throughout the whole territory from the Zambesi to Lourenço Marques difficulties in controlling the Bantu have been experienced, but Portugal has opened her eyes to the fact that it is necessary to employ other and better forces than convicts and uncivilised negroes, and she has succeeded in establishing her authority fairly well. In a war with a chief named Makombi in 1892 Gouveia lost his life, but his opponents were subsequently vanquished. Then Umdungazwe, or Gungunyana as called by the Portuguese, son and successor of Umzila, gave a great deal of trouble. He assumed an attitude of independence, and demanded that tribute should be paid to him by the Portuguese. This led to war in 1895, when Gungunyana was made a prisoner and banished from South Africa. Since that event the peace of the country has not been seriously disturbed.

Lines of English and German steamships now connect the various harbours with Europe by way of the Red sea, and with the British settlements of Natal and the Cape Colony. The commerce of the territory has made rapid progress. Unfortunately a large proportion of it is in the hands of Indian traders, a class of people who do not contribute to the strength of a country, nor improve it in any way. But in all other respects the prospects of Portuguese South Africa seem brighter to-day than at any previous time since Pedro d'Anaya built the first fort on the river bank of Sofala.

I N D E X.

- Abagaza, Bantu tribe: escape from Tshaka and ravage the country round Delagoa Bay; in 1833 destroy the Portuguese fort at Lourenço Marques and murder the garrison; settle on the Sabi river and carry on war with the Angoni, 439; plunder Inhambane and slaughter the inhabitants; destroy Sofala; attack Sena, kill most of the inhabitants, and exact tribute from that post thereafter, 440 and 441. See Gungunyana, Manikusa, and Umzila
- Abraham, emir of Kilwa: particulars concerning, 110, 153, 154, 160, 167, 168, 194, 201, 202, and 203. See Kilwa
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- d'Abreu, Manuel: is the holder of an enormous prazo, 388
- d'Abreu, Vasco Gomes: is the fourth captain of Sofala, 196; on the 8th of September 1507 assumes duty, 197; sails with four vessels from that port, and is never heard of again, 199 and 200
- Afonso VI: on 21st June 1662 becomes king of Portugal; on account of his worthless character is forced into retirement on the 23rd November 1667, and dies sixteen years later, 387
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- d'Albuquerque, Affonso: in 1508 sails from Lisbon with a squadron for India, 161; on 6th March 1506 sails for the second time from Lisbon with a fleet for India, 173; assists Tristão da Cunha in destroying Oja, making Lamu tributary to Portugal, and destroying Brava, 174 and 175; on 5th November 1509 succeeds Dom Francisco d'Almeida in the government of Portuguese India, 176
- d'Albuquerque, Francisco: in 1508 sails with a squadron for India, 161; leaves India to return home, and is never again heard of, 192 and 198
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- d'Almeida, Antonio Cardoso: is left by Vasco Fernandes Homem in charge of a garrisoned fort on the Zambesi; sends out a raiding party to obtain millet and cattle; is besieged by the natives until his provisions fail; tries to cut his way out, and is killed with all his men, 254
- d'Almeida, Dom Francisco: particulars concerning, 165; on the 25th of March 1505 sails from the Tagus with a large fleet for India where after the erection of certain fortresses he is to assume the title of viceroy, 166; on the 22nd of July reaches Kilwa, 167; on the 24th seizes and sacks the town, 168; builds and garrisons a fort there, 168; and establishes a government tributary to Portugal, 169; on the 13th of August arrives at Mombasa, 170; after severe fighting takes the town by storm, pillages, and burns it, 171 and 172; makes large presents to the friendly ruler of Melinde, and then sails for India, 173; on 2nd February 1509 defeats a great Egyptian fleet off Diu, 176; on 5th November 1509 transfers the government to Affonso d'Albuquerque, 176; on 19th November 1509 sails from Cochin for Portugal, 177; on the passage puts into Table Bay, and on 1st March 1510 is killed by Hottentots, 178
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- d'Anaya, Pedro: on the 18th of May 1506 sails with six ships from the Tagus to build a fort at Sofala, 182; arrives at his destination and has an interview with the sheik Isuf, 185; on 21st September commences to build a fort, 186; repels an attack of the Mohamedans aided by a Bantu clan, and firmly establishes Portuguese authority, 188 to 191; shortly afterwards dies of fever, 191
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